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ELEMENTS

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1 mAR. 32.

HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN:

WITH

A CHART AND TABLES OF HISTORY,

INCLUDED WITHIN THE VOLUME.

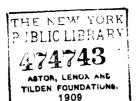
BY J. E. WORCESTER, A. A. S., S. H. S.

BOSTON:

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1843

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By J. E. WORDESTER.

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts,

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE first edition of the Elements of History and of the Historical Atlas, was published in 1826; and after the work had passed through three editions, the book was stereotyped in 1830; since which various impressions have been printed; and the work has received a large measure of the public approbation and patronage. The Elements and the Atlas were designed to be used together, each being materially incomplete without the other. But it is necessary that the books used in most of the schools in this country should be furnished at a very low price; and the expense of the Atlas has operated, in many cases, as an objection against its introduction; so much so, that the book has, in some instances, been used without it. In order, therefore, better to accommodate different classes, the author has been induced to put the book in such a state that it may be used, with convenience and advantage, without the Atlas. This has been accomplished by folding in the volume the Chart of (General) History, and also by inserting a series of Tables of History, which, in a measure, supply the place of the Charts or Tables in the Atlas.

The Elements of History and the Historical Atlas are still published as heretofore, and are to be preferred in all cases in which the additional expense is not felt to be a serious objection. The Atlas is important to the student not only in facilitating the study of history, but as a work of constant reference. It contains the following Charts:

Chart of (General) History.
Chart of Mythology.
Chart of Sacred History.
Chart of Ancient Chronology.
Chart of Modern Chronology.
Chart of Ecclesiastical History.
Chart of the Sovereigns of Europe

Historical Chart of England.
Historical Chart of France.
Hist. Chart of the German Empire
Historical Chart of Spain.
Chart of American History.
Chart of Biography.

PREFACE.

This volume is furnished with a Chart of General History, a series of Tables of History, and a copious list of Questions, in order to facilitate its use. The method of using the work will be found simple and easy. After the student has attended to the three short sections on the Uses, Sources, and Divisions of History, it is recommended that he should study carefully the Chart of History with the use of the Description, Illustration, and Questions, (see page 313.) By this means he will have the general outlines of history, with the periods of the rise and fall of the principal states and empires, impressed on his mind; and by having thus gained a comprehensive view of the whole ground, he will be prepared to study the particular parts with greater advantage. The Tables of Grecian, Roman, French, English, and American History are designed to be attended to in connection with the portions of the volume relating to the history of Greece, Rome, France, Eng land, and the United States respectively.

PREFACE.

The outlines of history may be acquired with incom ly greater facility by the use of Charts and Tables by the perusal of volumes, independently of such har and, what is of great importance, the information = bia thus obtained, will be so impressed on the mind as to be much more durable, than if acquired by any other method. By means of them one may easily trace the rise, progress, revolutions, decline, and fall of states and empires; see what states have been contemporary, and what have existed at different periods; take comprehensive views of the whole ground of history, and comparative views of the particular parts; mark the succession of the different dynasties and sovereigns in the different kingdoms and empires; learn the leading events of the several reigns and of different ages, and observe the periods when the most illustrious persons have flourished.

But for a knowledge of the internal condition and history of a state, the particular details of events, with their causes and consequences, and the exploits of individuals who have figured upon the theatre of the world, recourse must be had to other sources of information. In order, therefore, that the study of history may be pursued to the best advantage, and a proper attention be paid to the connection both of time and of subject, the use of charts should be united with that of historical narrative.

As it would be impossible, in a volume of the size of this, to trace a regular series of events relating to all the states and empires that have flourished in the world, the chief attention of the author has been paid to a few of them; those of which the history is of the greatest importance, particularly to American students, namely, Greece and Rome in ancient history, and France, England, and the United States, in modern. Brief notices, however, of various other states have been given, and also some short treatises on topics of importance in an introduction to the study of history.

Sacred and Ecclesiastical History has received some attention; and the volume will be found to afford, in addition to the details of general history, much information relating to religion, literature, and the progress of society.

In the preparation of the Elements, the author has endeavored to unite so much of reflection with the details of facts, as to assist the reader in forming correct views of the causes and consequences of events; and in order to render the work more interesting, he has, in some instances, introduced short anecdotes and memorable observations of distinguished men on important occasions.

Every one, much conversant with history, must be aware of the frequent and often great diversity in the

accounts given of the characters of men and events, even by authors of reputation. This diversity is to be attributed partly to the peculiar principles and prejudices of the historians, and partly to the contradictory statements in the original sources of history.

As the line of truth is in so many cases obscure and difficult to be discovered, the author cannot hope that he has in no instances fallen into error. It has, however, been his object to follow the best guides, and to give true impressions of the character of persons and transactions, so far as they came under review; but it would be impossible for him, were it desirable, to give a complete enumeration of his authorities, as information has been derived from upwards of two hundred volumes.

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ELEMENTS OF HISTORY.

USES OF HISTORY.

Il History is a narrative of past events. The study of it is attractive both to the young and the old, to the unreflecting and the philosophical mind.) It combines amusement of the deepest interest; the exercise and improvement of the best faculties of man; and the acquisition of the most important

species of knowledge.

History, considered merely as a source of amusement, has great advantages over novels and romances, the perusal of which too often debilitates the mind by inflaming the imagination, and corrupts the heart by infusing what may justly be regarded as moral poison. Like works of fiction, history serves to amuse the imagination and interest the passions, not always, indeed, in an equal degree; yet it is free from the corrupting tendencies which too often belong to novels, and has a great superiority over them, inasmuch as it rests on the basis of fact.

3. The love of novelty and of excitement is natural to man thence the general taste for history, though its details are not unfrequently painful. (It affords a melancholy view of human nature) governed by the baser passions; and is, to a lamentable extent, little else than a register of human

crime and calamity, of war and suffering.

4/A higher use of history is to improve the understanding and strengthen the judgment.) It has been styled philosophy teaching by examples; or moral philosophy exemplified by the lives and actions of men. It adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others and thereby enables us to enter upon the business of life with the advantage of being, in a manner, acquainted with it.

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5. It makes us acquainted with human nature and enables us to judge how men will act in given circumstances, and to trace the connection between cause and effect in human affairs. (It serves to free the mind from many narrow and hurtful prejudices to teach us to admire what is praiseworthy, wherever it may be found; and to compare, on enlarged and liberal principles, other ages and countries with our own.

6. (History may be regarded as the school of politics. and, as such, some knowledge of it is indispensable to rulers and statesmen;) n is also highly important to every citizen of a republic, in order we enable him to perform, in a manner honorable to himself and useful to the community, the duties of a freeman. By history we gain our knowledge of the constitution of society fof the reciprocal influence of national character. laws, and government; of those causes and circumstances which have promoted the rise and prosperity, or the decline and fall, of states and empires.

7.(History shows us past ages, triumphs over time, and presents to our view the various revolutions which have taken place in the world. It furnishes us with the wisdom and experience of our ancestors, exhibits their living actions, and enables us to profit by their successes and failures. It teaches us what has been done for the melioration of mankind by the wisdom of Greece and Rome, by modern literature and science, by free government, and by true religion.

8. It tends to strengthen the sentiments of virtue. In its faithful delineations, vice always appears odious, and virtue not only desirable and productive of happiness, but also favorable to true honor and solid glory? (The reader of history learns to connect true glory, not with the possession of wealth and power, but with the disinterested employment

of great talents in promoting the good of mankind.

9. True history has numberless relations and uses as an exhibition of the conduct of Divine Providence; and it presents numerous instances in which events, important to the welfare of the human race, have been brought about by inconsiderable means, contrary to the intentions of those who were the principal agents in them.

10. A knowledge of history has a tendency to render us contented with our condition in life by the views which it exhibits of the instability of human affairs. It teaches us that the highest stations are not exempt from severe trials

that riches and power afford no assurance of happiness; and that the greatest sovereigns have not unfrequently been more miserable than their meanest subjects.

SOURCES OF HISTORY.

Some of the principal sources of history, independent of authentic records, or the narrative of those who were contemporary with the events which they relate, are the following:—

1. Oral tradition.) From this source Herod'otus derived the greater part of his history. It existed before the invention

of the arts of writing, carving, and painting.

2. Historical poems. These are common among all barbarous nations. The *Iliad* and *Od'yssey* of *Homer* were regarded by the Greeks as of historical authority; and they comprise the only history extant of what is called the heroic age of Greece.

3. Visible monuments, as pillars, heaps of stones, and mounds of earth, are used to perpetuate historical events among a bar-

barous people.

4. \(\int Ruins \) as those of Egypt, and of the cities of Balbec, Palmy'ra, and Persep'olis, are lasting memorials of the power, opulence, and taste of the builders.

5. Giving names to countries, towns, &c., has been used, in all ages, as a method of perpetuating the memory of their

planters or founders.

6. Coins and medals are of great use in illustrating history, chronology, geography, and mythology, as well as the manners and customs of the nations of antiquity. These, however, belong to a people of some refinement. Ancient coins have been found buried in the earth at various times, in considerable quantities. Vast numbers are now preserved belonging to different ages. The most ancient of those of which the antiquity can be ascertained, belong to the 5th century before the Christian era.

7. Inscriptions on marbles. The most celebrated collec-

7. Inscriptions on marbles. The most celebrated collection of marbles, made use of for the illustration of ancient history, is that which is now in the possession of the University of Oxford, in England, and which was brought

from Greece by the earl of Arundel, and from him called the Arundelian Marbles.

8. The most important of these inscriptions is the *Chronicle* of *Paros*, which contains the chronology of Athens from the time of Cecrops, B. C. 1582, to B. C. 264, at which latter period it is supposed to have been compiled. The authority of this Chronicle has been called in question by a number of learned men; but it has been supported by many others, and the chronology of Greece, at present most generally received, has been, in a great measure, founded upon it.

DIVISIONS OF HISTORY.

1. History, with respect to time, is divided into Ancient

2. Ancient History is the history of the world from the creation to the establishment of the New Empire of the West under Charlemagne, A. D. 800. Modern History embraces all the time subsequent to that period.)

3. Some historians, however, adopt the Christian era, and others the subversion of the Western Empire of the Romans, A. D. 476, for the dividing point between Ancient and Modern

History.

4. A third division of history, which is often considered as distinct from ancient and modern, is that of the Middle Ages. This period comprises about a thousand years, from the 5th to the 15th century; or from the subversion of the Western Empire of the Romans to that of the Eastern Empire.

5. The Middle Ages embrace the time intervening between the extinction of ancient literature, and the appearance of modern literature. During this period Europe was sunk in ignorance and barbarism; hence it is often styled the *Dark Ages*.

6. Ancient History is distinguished by the four great monarchies of Assyria or Babylon, Persia, Greece or Macedonia,

and Rome.

7. The Middle Ages are characterized by the origin and progress of *Mahometanism* and the *Saracen Empire*, the prevaence of the *Feudal System*, the *Crusades*, and *Chivalry*.

8. Modern History is distinguished by the invention of gunpowder, and the consequent change in the mode of war;

the discovery of America, and the extension of commerce: the invention of the art of printing, the revival of learning, and the diffusion of knowledge; also by the reformation in religion, and a variety of other improvements in the state of society.

9. History, with regard to the nature of its subjects, is di vided into Sacred and Profane, Ecclesiastical and Civil.

10. 'Secred History is the history contained in the Scriptures, and it relates chiefly to the Israelites or Jews. Profane History is the history of ancient heathen nations, and is found chiefly in the writings of the Greeks and Romans. Ecclesiastical History is the history of the church of Christ, or of Christianity, from its first promulgation to the present time. Civil History is the history of the various nations, states, and empires, that have appeared in the world, exhibiting a view of their wars, revolutions, and changes.

11. Sacred History goes back to the remotest period of time, and commences with an account of the creation of the world, which, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures, took place 4004 years before the Christian era; according to the Samaritan text. 4700; according to the Septuagint, 5872; and according to the computation of Dr. Hales, 5411. The computation according to the Hebrew text, which gives 4004 from the creation to the Christian era, and 1656 from the creation to the deluge, is the one commonly received in English literature, though many suppose that of Dr. Hales to be more correct

12. The earliest profane historian, whose works are extant, is Herod'otus, who is styled the Father of History. tory was composed about 445 years B. C., and comprises every thing which he had an opportunity of learning respecting the Egyptians, Persians, Greeks, Ionians, Lydians, Lycians. and Macedonians, from about the year 713 to 479 before the

Christian era.

13. With regard, therefore, to all the preceding ages of the world, which, reckoning from the creation to the time when the narrative of Herod'otus begins, comprise, according to the common chronology, nearly 3300 years, there exist no documents, with the exception of the Scriptures, really deserving the name of history. The accounts which have been given of the events of this long series of ages, comprising more than half of the time which has elapsed since the origin of the human race, were drawn up by writers who lived long after the transactions of which they treat, and were compiled from scattered records fregments, and traditions.)

DIVISIONS OF HISTORY.

Our knowledge, of course, of the early history of the life in the first settlement of the different portions of it, the mative state of society, and the progress of mankind in the set ages, is extremely limited. The Scriptures are the authentic source of information on these subjects. The which they record, though not sufficiently numerous to this statisfy curiosity, are yet, in the highest degree, interesting and important.

15. Some of the most remarkable events, previous to the commencement of profane history, recorded in the Bible, are the creation of the world, the fall of man, the deluge, the dispersion of mankind at Babel, the planting of different nations, the call of Abraham, the deliverance of the Israelites out of

Egypt, and their settlement in Canaan.

16. The histories of Greece and Rome are far the best known, most interesting, and most important portions of ancient profane history.

17. There is much obscurity hanging over the history of

the Middle or Dark Ages.

18. The portions of history best known are those which relate to modern civilized nations, during the last three centuries.

[The CHART OF HISTORY, which is found in this volume, together with the DESCRIPTION and ILLUSTRATION, beginning with 313th page, may now be advantageously attended to.]

[For some remarks on Sacred History, and Tables of the History of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah, see pages 319, 320, and 321.]

EGYPT.

- 1. Egypt holds a conspicuous place in history, on account of its great antiquity and early attainments in the arts. It has been styled the cradle of the sciences, and it claims the honer of the invention of the art of writing. At a period when Greece and Italy were immersed in barbarism, Egypt could boast of arts, learning, and civilization. It was the principal source from which the Grecians derived their information; and, after all its windings and enlargements, we may still trace the stream of our knowledge to the banks of the Nile.
- 2. It is a matter of regret that we have the means of obtaining but little knowledge respecting the ancient history of Egypt. The early dynasties of the kingdom are involved in obscurity, and history throws little light on the building of its most ancient cities, or the construction of those magnificent monuments, which show to how high a state of improvement the inhabitants, at a remote period, had carried the arts, and which still continue to be objects of admiration and astonishment.
- 3. The most celebrated of these works of ancient grandeur are Lake Maris, an immense artificial reservoir; the Labyrinth, an enormous structure of marble, built under ground; the Catacombs, or Mummy-pits, subterraneous galleries, of prodigious extent, appropriated to the reception of the dead, and the Pyramids, a wonder both of the ancient and the modern world.

4. The glory of *Thebes*, a city of Upper Egypt, famous for its hundred gates, the theme and admiration of ancient poets and historians, belongs to a period prior to the commencement of authentic history. It is recorded only in the dim lights of poetry and tradition, which might be suspected of fable, did not such mighty witnesses to their truth remain.

5. Before the time of Herod'otus, Memphis had supplanted Thebes, and the Ptol'emies afterwards removed the seat of empire to Alexan'dria. Straho and Diodo'rus described Thebes under the name of Dios'polis, and gave such magnificent descriptions of its monuments, as caused their fidelity to be called in question, till the observations of modern travellers proved their accounts to have fallen short of the reality.

6. The place of alphabetic writing was supplied, in ancient Egypt, by those rude pictures of visible objects, known by the nan e of hicroglyphics, a multitude of which are still found

sculptured on her walls and temples.

7. A striking resemblance, with regard to government, religion, customs, and character, has been remarked between the ancient Egyptians and several oriental nations, particularly the Chinese. The government was an hereditary mon archy, but the power of the sovereign was checked by the influence of the priests.

8. Every person, not excepting the king, was, immediately after his death, subjected to a trial, in order to determine whether he was worthy of funeral rites. His whole life passed in review, and, if pronounced virtuous, his embalmed body was, with various marks of honor, deposited in a sepulchre, which was often constructed at great expense; but, if his life had been vicious, or if he had died in debt, he was left unburied, and was supposed to be deprived of future happiness.

9. Me'nes, supposed to be the same as Miz'raim, the son of Ham, is said to have founded the Egyptian monarchy, and to have been succeeded in the throne by his posterity, for many generations. Afterwards we are told that a race of sovereigns, styled the Shepherd Kings, governed Egypt for the

space of two or three centuries.

a warlike nation. Sesos'tris is the only king of the country whose name stands recorded in history as a great conqueror. He is said to have maintained a numerous army, and to have conquered a great part of Asia; but we have little certain knowledge of his achievements, or of the extent of his conquests. During his latter years, he is said to have renounced a life of warfare, and to have devoted himself to the internal improvement of his kingdom. The time of his reign is not well ascertained. He has been supposed to be the same as Shishak, who took Jerusalem in the reign of Rehoboam; but Sir Isaac Newton supposes him to have been the same as Osi'ris, and Mr. Whiston, the Pha'raok who was drowned in the Red sea.

11. The next sovereign who is particularly distinguished in history, was Nechus, or Pha'rach-Necho. He patronized navigation, and fitted out a fleet which sailed round Africa. He made war upon the Medes and Babylonians, and defeated Josiah king of Judah, in the battle of Megiddo.

12. In the year B. C. 525, at the commencement of the reign of Psammeni'tus, the *Persians*, under *Camby'ses*, invaded Egypt, and laid siege to *Pehr'siam*. Taking advantage of the Egyptian superstition, the invaders placed in front of their army a variety of dogs, cats, and other animals, which were held sacred by the besieged; and the Egyptians not daring to injure the sacred animals, the Persians entered Pelu'sium without resistance. Soon after Camby'ses took Memphis, and reduced Egypt to a province of the Persian monarchy.

13. It was easily wrested from the sway of Persia by Alexander the Great; after his death it fell to the share of Ptol'emy; and under him, and his successors of the same name, Egypt regained her ancient lustre, and rose to a height in science and commerce, which no other part of the world then equalled.

THE PHŒNICIANS.

1. The Phoenicians were among the most remarkable and most early civilized nations of antiquity; yet there is no complete or regular history of them extant; occasional notices of them, however, are found in the Scriptures and in the Greek historians. Sanconi'athon, a Phoenician historian, is supposed by some to have flourished about the time of Joshua; but of his work only a few fragments remain; and the genuinemess of even these is considered as very doubtful.

2. The inhabitants of Phoenicia, who are styled Ca'naanites in the Scriptures, were a commercial people in the time of Abraham. Tyre and Sidon, their principal cities, were two of the most ancient we read of in history; and in remote ages they were the most considerable seats of commerce in the world.

3. The Phoenicians were the reputed inventors of glass, purple, and coinage; the invention of letters has also been attributed to them, as well as to the Egyptians; and to Codmus is ascribed the honor of having first carried letters into Greece.

4. The Phoenicians sent out a number of colonies to Cyprus Rhodes, Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain; and the foundation of Carthage is attributed to Dido, sister of Pygma'lion king of Tyre, with a company of adventurers. Tyre suffered two memorable sieges and captures; the first by Nebuchadnezzar, and the second by Alexander the Great

ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

1. Assyria, the first of the four great empires of antiquity derived its name from (Ashur, the son of Shem, and the repused founder of Nineveh, its chief city) The foundation of Bebylon is ascribed to Nimrod, who was the grandson of Ham, and considered by many the same as the Belus of profane historians. These two cities are supposed to have been founded near the same time, and not long after the dispersion of Babel. But of their history, for many ages after their foundation, very little is known with certainty, and the accounts given of them by ancient authors are inconsistent with each other.

2.(It is commonly supposed that Assyria and Babylon were originally distinct kingdoms, and so continued till Ninus conquered Babylon, and annexed it to the Assyrian empire.) According to Dr. Gillies, however, only one monarchy existed at the same time, but divided into three great eras; the first commencing with Ninrod, when Babylon was the seat of empire; the second with Ninus, whose capital was Nines. 1; and the third beginning after the death of Sardanapa'lus, when Bab-

vion again became the metropolis.

3. Ninus and Semir'amis are the hero and heroine of the old Assyrian and Babylonian chronicles; but the account given of them appears to partake more of fable than of credible history. So great is the uncertainty respecting them, that different historians and chronologists differ no less than a thousand years

with regard to the time when they flourished.

4. Ninus is represented as a great and powerful sovereign, and is said to have enlarged and embellished the city of Nineveh. After having made extensive conquests, he espoused Semir'amis, who succeeded him in the throne. She is described not only as surpassing all her sex in wit and beauty, but also as possessing unbounded ambition, and extraordinary talents for government and war. She enlarged Babylon, and rendered it the most magnificent city in the world; and after a reign of great splendor, was succeeded by her son Ninyas.

5. From the time of Ninyas to the overthrow of the monarchy, under Sardanapa'lus, a period of several centuries, little or nothing is known respecting the history of Assyria and

Babylon.

6. The name of Sardanapa'his is almost a proverbial reproach. He is said to have so degraded himself as to adopt the dress and occupations of a female, and to have passed his life in the most disgraceful effeminacy and voluptuousness, in the company of his wives and concubines. At length Arbaces, governor of Media, and Bel'esis, a priest of Babylon, disgusted with his inglorious and shameful life, excited a rebellion against him. After sustaining a defeat, Sardanapa'lus, in order to avoid falling into the hands of the conquerors, set fire to his palace, and burnt himself, together with his women and all his treasures.

7. The empire was then divided into three kingdoms, among the three conspirators, Arbaces becoming king of Media, Bel'e-

sis of Babylon, and Pul or Phul of Assyria.

8. The successors of Pul were, 1st, Tig'lath-pi-le'ser, who took possession of that part of the kingdom of Israel which was east of the Jordan, 2d, Shalmane'ser, who put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the inhabitants captive; 3d, Sennach'erib, who laid siege to Jerusalem, in the time of Hezeki'ah, but was compelled to return in disgrace, 185,000 men of his army being destroyed in a miraculous manner in one night; 4th, Esarhad'don, who defeated Manas'seh, king of Judah, and carried him captive to Babylon.

9. Not long after the death of Esarhad'don, Nabopolas'sar, or Nebuchadncz'zar, having got possession of Babylon, being assisted by Cyaz'ares, king of Media, besieged and destroyed Nineveh, put an end to the Assyrian monarchy, and made

Babylon the seat of empire.

10. He was succeeded by his son, Nebuchadnezzar II., who took Jerusalem, and carried the Jews captive to Babylon. He had a long and signal reign, some particulars of which are re-

corded in the book of Daniel.

11. During the reign of Belshazzar, who succeeded to the throne a few years after the death of Nebuchadnezzar, the Persians, under Cyrus, after a siege of two years, having turned the course of the Euphrates, entered the city through the dried channel, and took it while the inhabitants were engaged in feasting and riot. Belshazzar was slain, and with him ended the empire of Babylon.

PERSIA.

1 Persia was the second of the four great empires of antiquity. Its history prior to the reign of Cyrus the Great, is involved in obscurity and fable. It was originally called Elma, and the inhabitants Elamites, who were descendants of Shem In the earlier ages it was of small extent, but under the reign of Cyrus, who was the founder of the great Persian empire, it became the most powerful and extensive sovereignty on the globe, comprising Persia, Media, Parthia, Assyria or Babylonia, Syria, and Asia Minor; and to these Egypt was added by Cam-

by'ses.

2. For the history of Persia, from the reign of Cyrus to the overthrow of the empire by Alexander the Great, we are indebted chiefly to the Greeks. In the account of the same period by the Persian writers, there is much of fable, and a total neglect of dates, and the names of the sovereigns are different from those given by the Greek historians. The narratives of these two classes of writers differ in many material points. The Greek authors, though they throw a veil of doubt over their records by their exaggerations, especially where the honor of their own country is concerned, are, nevertheless, esteemed as entitled to superior credit.

3. Cyrus is described as possessed of great talents, both as a warrior and a sovereign. Having subdued all the nations from the Ægæ'an sea to the Euphra'tes, he, together with his uncle Cyax'ares II., king of the Medes, took Babylon, and conquered the Assyrian empire. Cyax'ares dying soon after, Cyrus reigned sole monarch over the united kingdoms, during seven years; in the first of which he published the famous edict for the return of the Jews and the rebuilding of Jerusalem.

4. Herod'otus, Xen'ophon, and Cte'sias, in their accounts of the character and history of Cyrus, differ in many particulars. That of Xen'ophon has been followed by Rollin and other moderns; yet it is supposed to have been the design of Xen'ophon not to exhibit a faithful record of facts, but to delineate the model of a perfect prince, and a well regulated monarchy.

5. Cyrus was succeeded by his son Camby'ses, a cruel tyrant, whose principal exploit was the conquest of Egypt. On his death, Smerdis usurped the crown; but after a reign

of seven months, he was assassinated, and Dari'us was elected sovereign. It was the army of the latter that invaded Greece, and was defeated at Mar'athon. The history of Persia, from this time till the overthrow of the monarchy, is much connected with that of Greece.

6. Parius was succeeded by his son Xerzes I., who made the second great invasion of Greece, and suffered a series of defeats, with immense losses. He left the empire to his son Artaxerx'es I., who had a long and peaceful reign.

The other two principal sovereigns were Artaxerx'es II. during whose reign Xen'ophon made the famous retreat with 10,000 Greeks, and Dari'us Codom'anus, the last sovereign of ancient Persia. The latter was defeated by Alexander, and with his death the ancient Persian empire terminated.)

KINGS OF ANCIENT PERSIA.

The figures denote the commencement of the reign of each 1

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B.C.] B.C.
636. Cyrus the Great.	525. Xerxes II.
629. Cambyses.	524. Sogdianus.
622. Smerdis.	523. Darius Nothus.
621. Darius.	504. Artaxerxes Mnemon.
585. Xerxes.	358. Artaxerxes III. Ochus
564. Artabanus.	337. Arses.
564. Artaxerxes I. Longimanus.	336. Darius Codomanus.

2

GREECE.

SECTION I.

Greece—the Country and the People.

1. Greece, the most celebrated country of antiquity, was of very inconsiderable extent, scarcely exceeding in size the half of the state of New York. It was bounded on all sides by the sea, except on the north, where it bordered upon *Macedo'nia and Epi'rus. Its general aspect is rugged, but its climate is highly propitious; and no other country of antiquity was so favorably situated for holding commerce with other ancient nations.

2. This country occupies but a speck on the map of the world; yet it fills a space in the eye of taste and philosophy, incomparably greater than the mightiest empires that have overshadowed the earth. The inhabitants were renowned above all other ancient nations for genius, learning, and attainments in the arts; and they have been the teachers of all succeeding ages. Whatever, therefore, relates to Greece, is rendered peculiarly interesting by numerous associations.

3. Greece comprised numerous small, independent states, which were more commonly designated by the name of their chief city, than by that of the country or province. These states differed from each other in their forms of government, and the character and manners of the people. But, for their mutual defence, they were united in a confederacy by the council of the *Amphic'tyons*, as well as by a common language and religion, and by various public games, to which, in time of peace, they all resorted.

4. The only form of government in Greece, in the early ages, appears to have been limited monarchy; but, in process of

[&]quot;Greece, in its most extensive sense, included Macedonia and Epi'rus, countries anciently inhabited by a people of similar origin, language, and religion, but not recognized by the Greeks as a part of their body, principally on account of their less advanced civilization, and because they retained the rude monarchy of early ages, while Greece was divided into small republics. The Greeks also established colonies in Thrace, Asia Minor, Italy, Sicily, &c., so that they were widely spread over territories beyond the limits of the country which is properly styled Greece.

time, monarchy was abolished, and republican forms were

everywhere prevalent.

5. The history of these little republics is calculated to awaken perpetual and powerful interest. They underwent many revolutions, and were frequently engaged in war with each other, as well as with foreign nations; so that their history presents scenes continually new and shifting, and abounding in those strange and sudden reverses which agitate and interest the mind of man.

6. Greece was called by the natives Hellas, and the inhabitants Helle'nes; but, by the poets, they were often called Dan'ai, Pelas'gi, Argi'vi, Achi'vi, Acha'i, &c. The original inhabitants, generally considered as the descendants of Javan, the son of Japhet, were extremely barbarous, living in caves and huts, feeding upon acorns and berries, and clothing themselves with the skins of wild beasts.

7. In this state of hopeless barbarism was Greece, when it was visited by a colony of *Egyptians* under *Cecrops*, and another of *Phanicians* under *Cadmus*, who have the fame of bringing to the country the first rudiments of civilization

SECTION II.

The History of Greece divided into Periods.

1. The history of Greece may be distinguished into two general divisions:—1st/ the period of uncertain history, extending from the earliest accounts of the country to the first war with Persia, in the year B. C. 490; 2d, the period of authentic history, extending from the Persian invasion to the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans, B. C. 146.

2. The first period, according to the most generally received chronology, reckoning from the foundation of Siç'yon, the most ancient kingdom of Greece, comprises the space of about 1600 years. This long succession of ages is involved in obscurity and fable. There are no records relating to it that really deserve the name of history; and the accounts which have been given of its events were drawn up by writers who lived long after the transactions of which they treat, and who possessed few materials for authentic history.

3. This period may be distinguished into four subdivisions, which are marked by some peculiar historical features: the

lst, reaching from the earliest accounts of Greece to the Trojan war, B. C. 1184, a period which may be termed, by was of eminence, the fabulous age: the 2d, extending from the expedition against Troy to the death of Homer, a period generally called the heroic age, of which the only history is contained in the poems of the Il'iad and Od'yssey: the 3d, comprising the space of time from the death of Homer to the death of Lycurgus, a period which has been denominated the era of revolutions, of which scarcely any species of history exists: the 4th, reaching from the death of Lycurgus to the first invasion of Greece by the Persians, a period which has been styled the era of traditionary history, possessing a considerable degree of credibility.

4. The second general division, the period of authentic history, extends from the first invasion of Greece by the Persians to its final subjugation by the Romans, a period of 344 years. The history of this portion is luminous and connected beyond that of any other portion of pagan antiquity, having been recorded by writers of the greatest ability, who were contemporary with the events which they relate, and many of whom

bore a distinguished part in them.

5. This period also may be divided into four parts, distinguished rather by political than historical characteristics: the Ist, reaching from the Persian invasion, B. C. 490, to the commencement of the Peloponnesian war, a period of 59 years, the era of Grecian unanimity and triumphs: the 2d, extending from the beginning of the Peloponnesian war to the accession of Philip of Macedon, B. C. 360, a period of 71 years, the era of civil wars and intestine commotions among the states of Greece: the 3d, reaching from the accession of Philip to the death of Alexander the Great, B. C. 324, a period of 36 years, distinguished by the entire ascendance of Greece, or rather of Mac'edon, over Persia: the 4th, extending from the death of Alexander to the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans, B. C. 146, a period of 178 years, the era of degeneracy, turbulence, and ineffectual struggles for independence. During the greater part of this period, the destinies of Greece were directed by foreign influence, and were placed successively under the protection of Macedonia, Egypt and Rome.

SECTION III.

Fabulous Age: Foundation of Cities and Institutions: Argonautic Expedition.

1. The fabulous age comprises the period of the foundation of the principal cities, the commencement of civilization, the introduction of letters and the arts, and the establishment of

the most celebrated institutions of the country.

2. Sig'y-on, the most ancient city, is said to have been founded by Ægi'alus; Argos, by In'achus, the last of the Titans; Ath'ens, by Ce'crops, an eminent legislator, with a colony from Egypt; Thebes, by Cadmus, a Phænician, who is said to have first introduced letters into Greece; Cor'inth, by Sis'yphus;

Myce'næ, by Per'seus; and Lacedæ'mon, by Lclex.

3. Some of the memorable events of this period were the deluges of Og'y-ges and Deuca'lion; the institution of the Olym'pic, Isth'mian, Pyth'ian, and Nemean games; of the laws of Minos in Crete, the court of Areop'agus, the Eleusin'ian mysteries, the Oracle of Delphi, and the council of the Amphic'tyons. This period also embraces the marvellous exploits of Her'cules, The'seus, and other fabulous heroes.

4. The first great enterprise recorded of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition, the account of which appears to partake much more of fable than of history. It was commanded by Jason, the son of the king of Iol'chos, accompanied by about fifty of the most illustrious young men of Greece: among these heroes were Her'cules, The'seus, Castor and Pollux, Or'pheus, the physician Æscula'pius, and the astronomer_Chi'ron.

5. They sailed from Iol chos, in Thessaly, to Col chis, on the eastern shore of the Euxine sea; and they were called Ar gonauts from their sailing in the ship Argo, which is said to have been the first sea vessel ever built. This famous voyage, which was probably a piratical expedition, is commonly represented to have been undertaken for the purpose of recovering the golden fleece of a ram, which originally belonged to their country. The fleece is pretended to have been guarded by bulls that breathed fire, and by a dragon that never slept.

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SECTION IV.

The Heroic Age: Trojan War: Return of the Herochida.

1. The heroic age has been compared to the age of chivalry; and there has been supposed to exist a striking resemblance between the manners and sentiments of the Greeks of that period and those of the Gothic nations of Europe in the middle ages, except that the latter displayed more generosity in war, and more gentleness to the female sex, than the former.

2. The history of the *Trojan war* rests on the authority of *Homer*, and forms the subject of his *Iliad*, the noblest poem of antiquity, which presents a lively picture of the Greeian

character and manners at this early period.

3. Hel'en, the daughter of Tyn'darus, king of Sparta, was reputed the most beautiful woman of her age, and her hand was solicited by the most illustrious princes of Greece. Her father bound all her suitors, by a solemn oath, that they should abide by the choice that Helen should make of one among them; and, should she be stolen from the arms of her husband, that they would all assist, with their utmost strength, to recover her. Menela'us was the favored individual, and, after his nuptials with Helen were celebrated, Tyn'darus resigned the crown to his son-in-law.

4. Par'is, the son of Pri'am, king of Troy, a powerful city founded by Dar'danus, having adjudged the prize for superior beauty to Venus, in preference to Juno and Minerva, was promised by her the most beautiful woman of the age for his wife. Soon afterward he visited Sparta, and was received with every mark of respect by king Mencla'us; but he abused the hospitality which was shown him by persuading Helen to elope with him to Trov, and, together with her, carried off a considerable treasure.

5. This act of treachery and ingratitude produced the Trojan war; a confederacy was immediately formed by the princes of Greece, agreeably to their engagement, to avenge the outrage. A fleet of about 1,200 open vessels conveyed an army of 100,000 men to the Trojan coast. Agamen'non, king of Argos, brother of Menela'us, was chosen commander in chief. Some of the other most celebrated princes, who distinguished themselves in this war, were Achil'les, the bravest of the Greeks, Ajax, Meneta'us, Ulys'ses, Nestor, and Diome'des

6. The Trojans were commanded by *Hector*, the son of Priam, assisted by *Par'is*, *Deiph'obus*, Æne'as, and Sarpe'don. After a siege of ten years, the city was taken by stratagem, plundered, and burnt to the ground. The venerable king Priam was slain, and his family led into captivity

7. About eighty years after the destruction of Troy began the civil war of the Heracli'da, usually called the return of

the Heracli'da into Peloponne'sus.

8. Her'cules, sovereign of Myce'næ, a city of Peloponne' sus, was banished from his country, with all his family, while the crown was seized by At'reus, the son of Pelops. After the period of a century, the Heracli'dæ, or descendants of Her'cules, returned to Peloponne'sus, and, having subdued all their enemies, took possession of the country. A part of the inhabitants were reduced to slavery; the rest, being expelled, retired to Asia Minor, and possessed themselves of a country afterwards called *Ionia*.

9. This revolution in Peloponne'sus not only changed the inhabitants and government of the country, and established new divisions of the Greeks, but checked the progress of the

arts and civilization.

SECTION V.

Sparta or Lacedamon: Institutions of Lycurgus.

1. The two leading states of Greece were Athens and Sparta, the latter distinguished for military valor and discipline, the former for literature and the arts.) Their different characters and habits were formed, in a great degree, by the institutions of their respective legislators, Lycurgus of Sparta, and Solon of Athens.

2. Sparta, or Lacedæ'mon, was the capital of Laconia, in the southern part of Peloponne'sus. After the return of the Heracli'dæ, its government was administered by the two sons of Aristode'mus, who reigned jointly, and this double monarchy was transmitted to the descendants of each for many ages.

3. Lyourgus, the celebrated Spartan legislator, was the brother of one of the kings; and, on the death of the sovereign, he became protector. The government of Sparta being now in the greatest disorder, Lycurgus, in whom, on account of

his great abilities and integrity, the highest confidence was reposed, was intrusted with the duty of reforming the constitution.

4. He wrought an entire change in the form of government, and in the manners of the people. He instituted a senate of 28 members, elected from the nobles. The two kings were continued, but were nothing more than hereditary and presiding members of the senate, generals of the army, and high priests of the nation. He divided the territory of the republic into 39,000 equal shares, among all the free cirizens.

5. Commerce was abolished; the distinction of dress annihilated; the use of gold and silver prohibited, and iron money substituted in their place. All the citizens, not excepting even the kings, were required to eat at the public tables, where all luxury and excess were to be avoided, black broth being

the principal article of food.

6. Every citizen was to be wholly devoted to the service of the state, whether in peace or war. Infants, as soon as born, were carefully inspected, and those that were well formed, were delivered to public nurses; and at the age of seven years, they were introduced into the public schools, where they were all educated on the same plan. Those that were deformed or sickly, were exposed to perish.

7. Letters were taught for use, but not for ornament; and the Spartans, while they were distinguished as a shrewd and sagacious people, were never eminent for learning: and no book has been transmitted to modern times written by a genuine Spartan. Diffuseness of language and conversation was discountenanced, and the Lacedæmonians were noted for their

concise or laconic speech.

8. The young were taught especially to respect the aged, and to cherish an ardent love of their country: they were formed to a high principle of honor, and to great sensibility to applause and to shame. They were early inured to hardship; were accustomed to sleep on rushes, and only supplied with plain and scanty food; but they were encouraged to steal whatever they could, provided they accomplished the theft without being detected.

9. The institutions of Lycurgus were well adapted to impress on the people a character completely artificial, by stimulating some feelings and principles to excess, and almost eradicating others; but they were not calculated to promote either happiness or goodness. The system was, however, ingeniously contrived to render the Spartans a nation of soldiers: by them war was considered the great business of life; and it

was their highest ambition to be terrible to their enemies. The heroic virtues or qualities, such as patriotism, public spirit, courage, fortitude, and contempt of danger, suffering, and death, were cherished; while all the softer virtues and domestic affections were sacrificed.

10. Young women, as well as young men, were trained to athletic exercises. The manners of the Lacedsmonian women were loose and indelicate. They were destitute of the virtues which most adorn the female character—modesty, tenderness, and sensibility. Their education was calculated to give them a masculine energy; to render them bold, hardy, and courageous; and to fill them with admiration of military glory. Mothers exulted when their sons fell honorably in battle. "Return with your shield, or on your shield," said a Spartan mother to her son, when he was going to meet the enemy; that is, "conquer or die."

11. The government of Lacedæ'mon acquired solidity, while the other states were torn by internal dissensions. For the long period of 590 years, the institutions of Lycurgus continued in force; the power and influence of Sparta were felt throughout Greece; and for a considerable part of that period, her glory

eclipsed that of the other states.

12. But in process of time, the severe manners of her warriors were relaxed; and during the administration of some of her later kings, changes were introduced into the laws and institutions, particularly in the time of Lysan'der, whose conquests filled his country with wealth, and opened the sources of luxury and avarice.

SECTION VI.

Athens: Codrus: Draco: Solon and his Institutions: Pisis tratus: Pisistratida.

1. Athens, the capital of At'tica, was the most celebrated city of Greece. It was distinguished for its commerce, wealth, and magnificence; was the chief seat of learning and the arts; and it was the birthplace of many illustrious men.

2. The last king of Ath'ens was Co'drus, who, in the war with the Heracli'dse, sacrificed himself for the good of his country. After his death, the regal government was abolished, and the state was governed by magistrates, styled archons. The office was at first for life; afterward reduced to a period

of ten years; at last it became annual, and was divided among

nine persons.

3. The first code of written laws which the Athenians possessed, was prepared by *Draco*, a man of stern and rigid temper. These laws punished all crimes with death; and, on account of their sanguinary character, are said to have been written in blood. Draco, being asked why he was so severe in his punishments, replied, that "the smallest crimes deserved death, and he had no higher punishment for the greatest." But the great severity of these laws prevented their being fully executed.

4. The celebrated Solon, one of the seven wise men of Greece, being raised to the archonship, was intrusted with the care of framing for his country a new constitution, and a new system of laws. His disposition was mild and temporizing; and he did not, like Lycurgus, endeavor to operate a total change in the manners of his countrymen, but attempted to moderate their dissensions, restrain their passions, and open a fair field to the growth and exercise of ability and virtue; and his system, though less original and artificial, was more rational and judicious. Of his laws, he said, "If they are not the best possible, they are the best the Athenians are capable of receiving."

5. Solon vested the supreme power in an assembly of the people, composed of the freemen whose age exceeded 30 years. By them all laws were ensured; every public measure determined; all appointments made; and to them an appeal lay from all courts of justice. He instituted a senate or council of 400, afterward increased to 500; restored the Areop'agus; and divided the people into four classes, according to their

wealth.

6. Commerce and agriculture were encouraged; industry and economy enforced; ingratitude, disobedience to parents, and opprobrious language, punished. The father who had taught his son no trade, could not claim a support from him in his old age. The body of laws which Solon established has been so highly esteemed, that it has formed the basis of many subsequent systems of legislation.

7. The different laws of Athens and Sparta produced, in process of time, a corresponding difference in the character and manners of the people. At Athens, the arts were in the highest esteem; at Sparta, they were despised. At Athens, peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyment of life the aim of the people. At Sparta, war was

the great business of life, and no amusements were practised except such as were military or athletic. An Athenian was characterized by luxury; a Spartan, by frugality: the virtues of the latter were more severe; those of the former more agreeable. They were both, however, equally jealous of liberty, and equally brave in war.

8. Before the death of Solon, *Pisis tratus*, a citizen of great wealth and eloquence, by courting popularity in various ways, found means to raise himself to the sovereign power, which he and his ions retained for 50 years. He exercised a munificent and is lendid dominion, encouraged the arts and sciences, and is said to have founded the first public library known to the world and first collected the poems of Homer into one volume, which before were merely repeated in detached portions.

9. Pisto tratus transmitted the sovereignty to his sons Hip pias and Hippar chus, called the Pisistrat ide. They governed,

9. Pisse tratus transmitted the sovereignty to his sons Hip pias and Hippar'chus, called the Pisistrat'idæ. They governed, for some time, with wisdom and moderation; but at length an abuse of tower caused a conspiracy to be formed against them, and the government was overthrown by Harmo'dius and Aristog: on. Hippar'chus was slain; and Hippias not long after flet to Dari'us, king of Persia, who was then meditating the contest of Greece; and he was afterward killed in the battle of Mar'athon, fighting against his countrymen.

SECTION VII.

Greece waded by the Persians under Darius: Battle of Marayon: Miltiades. Persian Invasion under Xerzes: Themi tocles: Aristides: Battle of Thermopylæ: Leonidas: 1 attles of Salamis, Platæa, and Mycale: Cimon.—From 3. C. 490 to 431.

1. The period from the first Persian invasion to the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, is esteemed the most glorious age of G, sece. The series of victories which the inhabitants obtained over the Persians, are the most splendid recorded in history.

2. Persia, at this period, was far the most powerful empire in the world, embracing the territories included in modern Persia, Turkey in Asia, Egypt, a great part of Tartary, and part of Arabia. The Greek colonies in Asia Minor were subject to the Persians, who had likewise made a conquest of Thrace: Macedonia had also acknowledged subjection; so that the Persian dominion extended over a large portion of the Grecian people, and even bordered on the country of Greece.

3. The Asiatic Greeks made an attempt to throw off the Persian yoke, and were assisted by the Athenians. *Darius*, king of Persia, having reduced his revolted subjects to submission, formed a determination, in consequence of the course taken by the Athenians, to make an entire conquest of Greece; and in this design he was encouraged and assisted by the ex-

iled tyrant Hippias.

4. Dari'us despatched heralds to each of the Grecian states, demanding earth and water, as an acknowledgment of his supremacy. Thebes, together with a number of the other cities, and most of the islands, submitted; but the Athenians and Lacedæmonians were so indignant, that, forgetting the laws of nations and of humanity, they put the heralds to death with the utmost ignominy. At one place they were thrown into a pit, at the other into a well, and told there to take their earth and water.

5. Dari'us began his hostile attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet, under the command of *Mardo'nius*, was wrecked in a storm, in doubling the promontory of *A'thos*, with a loss of no less than 300 vessels; a second, of 600 sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army, consisting, according to the lowest statements of ancient historians, of 110,000 men, commanded by *Antapher'nes* and *Da'tis*, invaded Attica.

6. This formidable host was met on the narrow plain of *Mar'athon* by the Athenian army, greatly inferior in number (by some stated at only 10,000), under the command of the celebrated *Milti'ades*, who, availing himself of an advantageous position of the ground, gained a decisive victory, and drove the routed invaders to their ships. The loss of the Persians

was 6,300; that of the Athenians, only 192.

7. Miltiades, by this victory, rose to the height of popularity and influence, which, however, he lost not long afterwards by a failure in an attack on the island of Pa'ros. On his return from this expedition, he was accused of treason, and, though absolved from the capital charge, yet he was condemned to pay a fine of 50 talents (about 50,000 dollars). In consequence of this, he was thrown into prison, and died in a few days of the wounds which he received at Paros; but the fine was paid by his son Cimon.

8. The Athenians were, at this time, divided into two parties, one of which favored an aristocratical, and the other a democratical, form of government. The two leaders of these parties were *Themis'tocles* and *Aristi'des*, both of whom had distinguished themselves as commanders in the battle of Mar'athon; Aristi'des being the advocate of aristocracy, and The-

mistocles of democracy.

9. Aristi'des, who, on account of his stern integrity, received the surname of the Just, was, through the intrigues of his great rival, banished for ten years by the Os'tracism. While the people were giving their votes for his exile, it happened that a citizen, who was unable to write, and did not know him personally, brought his shell to him, and requested that he would write the name of Aristi'des upon it. "Why, what harm has Aristi'des ever done you?" said he; "No harm at all," answered the citizen, "but I cannot bear to hear him continually called the Just." Aristi'des smiled, and, taking the shell, wrote his name upon it, and quietly went into banishment; but he was recalled soon after the renewal of the war.

10. The death of Dari'us, and other circumstances, occasioned the discontinuance of the war for several years; but *Xerzes*, the young Persian monarch, having ascended the throne, was eager to punish Athens, and subdue Greece. Having spent four years in preparation, he collected an army greater than the world ever saw, either before or since. According to Herod'otus, the whole number, of fighting men, in the army and fleet, exceeded 2,000,000°; and, including the retinue of sutlers, slaves, and women, the whole multitude is said to have exceeded 5,000,000.

11. The fleet consisted of upwards of 1,200 galleys of war, besides a greater number of transports and smaller vessels. A canal, navigable for the largest galleys, was formed across the isthmus which joins mount Athos to the continent; and, for the conveyance of the army, two bridges of boats were extended across the Herlespont, at a point where the width is

seven furlongs.

12. Xerxes, having taken a station on an eminence, in order to gratify his vanity by viewing the vast assemblage which he had collected—the earth covered with his troops, and the sea with his vessels—is said to have been suddenly so much affected as to shed tears, upon reflecting that, in the space of one hundred years, not one of the many thousands would be alive.

3

13. The Persian army advanced directly towards Athens, and this city fortunately possessed, in *Themis'tocles*, a leader of extraordinary talents, peculiarly fitted for conducting the arduous contest. Most of the other states united in assisting Athens in repelling the invaders, Sparta taking the lead; but some of them submitted to the Persians.

14. Leon'idas, king of Sparta, with a small army, undertook the defence of Thermop'ylæ, a narrow mountain pass or defile on the coast, connecting Thessaly and Phocis. Xerxes, having approached this place, sent a herald to Leon'idas, commanding him to deliver up his arms, to whom the Spartan replied, with laconic brevity, "Come and take them." For two days the Persians strove to force their way, but were repulsed with great slaughter; but having, at length, discovered a by-path over the mountains, the defence of the pass

became impossible.

15. Leon'idas, foreseeing certain destruction, resolved, in obedience to a law of Sparta, which forbade its soldiers, in any case, to flee from an enemy, to devote his life to the honor and service of his country; and, animated by his example, the 300 Spartans under his command determined with him to abide the event. With the fury of men resolved to sell their lives at the dearest rate, they fell upon the Persian camp, and were all cut off, after having made a dreadful have of the enemy. Two only of the Spartans, these having been accidentally absent, survived the battle. A monument was erected on the spot, hearing this inscription, written by Simon'ides: "O stranger! tell it at Lacedæmon, that we died here in obedience to her laws."

16. The Persians, having forced the pass of Thermopylæ, poured down upon Attica, ravaging the country with fire and sword. The inhabitants of Athens, after conveying their women and children to the islands for security, betook themselves to the fleet, abandoning the city, which the Persians

pillaged and burnt.

17. Preparations were now made for a great naval battle. The Persian fleet consisted of 1,200 galleys; that of the Greeks of 300, and was commanded by Themis'tocles and Aristi'des. An engagement took place in the straits of Sal-amis, where it was impossible for the Persians to bring their numerous ships regularly into action, and they were defeated with immense loss. The king, who had seated himself on an eminence to witness the battle, terrified at the result, retreated, with a part of his army, to his own dominions.

18. Xerxes left Marde'nius, with 300,000 men, to complete the conquest of Greece in the following summer. This army, which was joined by many Grecian auxiliaries, was met at Plata'a, early in the next season, by the combined forces of Athens and Lacedæ'man, consisting of 110,000 mer. under the command of Aristi'des and Pausa'nias, and was defeated with tremendous slaughter, Mardo'nius being killed, and the mest of his men being slain in the battle and the subsequent massacre.

19. On the same day of the great victory of Platze'a, the Greeks, under Leetych'ides the Lacedæmenian, and Xanthip'pus the Athenian, engaged and destroyed the Persian fleet at the prementery of Myc'a-le, near Ephesus. The Persian army was new completely destrayed. Xerxes, having been entirely frustrated in all his mad schemes, was seen after assassinated, and was succeeded by his son Artaxerxes Lon-

gim'anus.

20. The Persian war, however, was not yet terminated The Greeks, in their turn, became the assailants and invaders They undertook to defend the Ionians, who had thrown of the Persian yeke. The Spartans, commanded by Pausa'nias, and the Athenians, by Aristi'des and Ci'men, advanced to the island of Cyprus, which they took, and set free; and, having taken and plundered the city of Byzan'tium, they returned

with immense beetv.

21. Pausa'nias, who had berne a distinguished command in this war, being at length intexicated with glery and power, aspired to held, under Persia, the dominion of Greece, and in a letter to Xerxes, premised to effect the subjugation of the country, on condition of his receiving his daughter in marriage. Being convicted by the epheri of this treason, he took refuge in the temple of Minerva, where, the sanctity of the place securing him from violence he was deemed to perisb

by hunger.

Themis'tocles, the great Athenian commander, was accused of participating in the treason of Pausanias, and was banished by the ostracism. Proceeding to Asia, he wrote a letter to king Artaxerxes, in which he said, "I, Themistocles, come to thee, who have done thy house most ill of all the Greeks. while I was of necessity repelling the invasion of thy father. but yet more good, when I was in safety, and his return was endangered." He was permitted to live in great splendor, in Persia, and there died in exile, leaving an almost unrivalled reputation as a statesman and warrior; but, if to his great talents he had joined an unquestionable integrity, his fame

would have been purer.

23. After the banishment of Themistocles, the affairs of Athens were, for a short time, directed by Aristi'des; and, upon his death, the whole power came into the hands of Ci-man, the son of Milti'ades, one of the most illustrious statesmen and warriors that Greece ever produced.

24. Cimon maintained the political influence and military power of Athens, conducted the war with great success, and gained two great victories over the Persians on the same day, one by sea, and the other by land, near the mouth of the

Eurym'edon, in Asia Minor.

25. A powerful party at length arose against Cimon, and procured his banishment by the ostracism, and *Per'icles*, a young man of noble birth, great talents, and extraordinary eloquence, succeeded him in authority.

26. But, after a banishment of five years, Cimon was recalled, restored to the command of the army, gained further important victories over the Persians, and finally died of a wound which he received at the siege of Citium, in Cyprus.

- 27. The Persian war, which had lasted, with little inter mission, about fifty years, was new brought to a termination Artaxerxes, finding his strength, both by sea and land, broken sued for peace, which was granted on condition that he should give freedom to all the Grecian colonies in Asia Miner, and that the Persian fleets should be excluded from the Grecian seas.
- 28. After the death of Cimon, his brother-in-law, Thucydides, became the competitor of Pericles for popular favor and authority. A war of eloquence ensued, and Thucydides, being worsted, was banished by the ostracism, and the lead of Pericles was, from this time till his death, a period of about twenty years, but little disputed.

29. He governed Athens with almost arbitrary sway, adorned the city with master-pieces of architecture, sculpture, and painting, patronized the arts and sciences, celebrated splendid games and festivals, and his administration formed an era of great internal splendor and magnificence; but he exhausted the public revenue, and corrupted the manners of the people.

30. The time of the Persian war was the period of the highest military glory of the Greeks, and they owed their prosperity to their union. But, after this war had ceased, this union was dissolved, and the jealousies and ambitious views of the rival states were again revived. Athens had been

rebuilt, and surrounded with a strong wall. But to this Sparta had meanly objected, and Athens saw with pleasure the depopulation of Sparta by an earthquake, in which about 20,000 lives were lost. Sparta also suffered greatly about this time

by the insurrection of the Helots, or slaves.

31. Although the Athenians were apparently the greatest sufferers by the invasion, their city being burnt, and their country laid waste, yet they derived the greatest benefits from its effects. In consequence of their naval superiority, and the unrivalled talents of their commanders, Milti'ades, Themis'tocles, Aristi'des, and Ci'mon, they reached the summit of political influence and military power, and attained that superiority in Greece which the Lacedæmonians had hitherto enjoyed.

32. The politics of Greece, for a considerable time after the Persian war, turned upon the rivalry between the two leading republics, Athens and Lacedæmon. The former was powerful by sea, the latter by kand. Athens was the patroness of democracy, Lacedæmon of aristocracy. It was customary for the weaker states, for their security, to ally themselves with one of the two leading ones; and, in most of them, there were two parties in continual contest, the democrats and the aristocrats: the former naturally adhered to Athens; the latter to Sparta.

33. From this period the martial and patriotic spirit began to decline. An acquaintance with Asia, and an importation of her wealth, introduced a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries. With the Athenians, however, this luxurious spirit was under the guidance of taste and genius, and it led to the cultivation of the fine arts, which, during the age of *Pericles*,

were in the most flourishing state.

SECTION VIII.

Peloponnesian War: Pericles: Alcibiades: Battle of Egos-Potamos: Lysander: Thirty Tyrants: Socrates: Retreat of the 10,000: Peace of Antalcidas: Thebes: Epaminondas: Battles of Leuctra and Mantinea: Agesilaus.—From B. C. 431 to 360.

1. In the latter part of the administration of Per'icles, commenced the *Peloponnesian War*, which grew out of the long-

continued rivalship between Athens and Sparta, and was the most important and celebrated war ever carried on by the Grecian states with each other.

2. This contest partook, in a great degree, of the nature of a civil war; and though the time of its continuance, the age of Soc'rates himself, was an era characterized by the high perfection to which the arts, philosophy, and refinement had been brought, yet it was carried on in a spirit of savage ferocity, rarely exemplified among civilized nations; a boundless scope was given to ambition and party rage; all the ties of nature were trampled upon, and Greece exhibited, during this period, a perpetual scene of conflict and calamity.

3. The Athenians, having assisted the inhabitants of Corcy'ra against the Corinthians, were accused by the latter of having thereby violated the treaty of the confederated states of Peloponne'sus, and an appeal to arms was immediately resolv-

ed on.

4. Sparta took the lead against Athens, and was joined by all the Peloponnesian states, except Argos, which remained neutral; and in Northern Greece, by the Megarians, Bootians, Locrians, Phoeians, &c. Athens had few allies; the principal were the Thessalians, Acarnanians, and several islands. The Peloponnesian forces, commanded by the Spartan king, Archid'amus, amounted to 60,000; while the army of the Athenians did not exceed 32,000; but the navy of the latter was much the superior.

5. In the first year of the war, the Lacedæmonians ravaged Attica, and laid siege to Athens; in the second year, the city was visited by a dreadful plague, which swept away multitudes; and among its victims was Pericles, who died the third year of the war, and at a time when his services were most wanted The war, however, was not arrested by this awful calamity, but continued to rage for several years in a similar manner,

and with nearly equal losses on both sides.

6. After the death of Per'icles, Cleon, who raised himself into power by flattering the worst passions of his countrymen, had, for a time, the direction of the Athenian councils; but he was slain at Amphip'olis, in a battle with Bras'idas the Spartan general, who was also mortally wounded. After the death of Cleon, by means of the influence of Ni cias, the leader of the aristocratic and pacific party, a treaty of peace was concluded between Athens and Sparta.

7. But the war was again soon renewed through the influence of Alcibi'ades, who now took the lead in the government of

Athens, and who was one of the most accomplished orators and generals of his age; but whose total want of principle rendered

his talents ruinous both to himself and his country.

8. An expedition was sent against the island of Sicily, under the command of Alcibi'adis and Ni'cias; but the former was accused of misconduct and recalled, and the latter totally defeated and slain. Alcibiades afterward again took the command of the army of Athens, and gained important advantages; but he at length fell into disgrace, and was banished; and the chief command of the Athenian army was given to Conon.

9. But Lysan'der, the ablest of the Lacedæmonian generals, having succeeded to the command, utterly defeated the Athenian fleet at Æ'gos-Pot'amos on the Hellespont, which reduced Athens to the last extremity. The Lacedæmonians blockaded the city by land and sea, and its reduction was left

to the sure operation of famine.

10. The Athenians, anxious to avoid utter extermination, were ready to accept almost any terms of peace. They were spared or condition that they should demolish their port, with all their fortifications, limit their fleet to 12 ships, and in future undertake no military enterprise, except under the command of the Lacedæmonians. Thus the Peloponnesian war terminated by the humiliating submission of Athens, and by rendering Lacedæmon the leading power in Greece.

11. Lysan'der, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government, and substituted in its place an oligarchy consisting of 30 magistrates, whose power was absolute, and who, from their atrocious acts of cruelty, where styled the Thirty Tyrants. In the space of eight months, 1,500 citizens were sacrificed to their avarice or vengeance. At length Thrasybu'lus, at the head of a band of patriots, drove the tyrants from the seat of their abused power, and restored the democratical form of government.

12. But pure democracy was far from being any security, at Athens, against acts of tyranny and oppression, even in the most enlightened age of the republic. The Athenians were characterized as fickle and capricious; and in some of their proceedings, they were as unjust and cruel as the most law-

less despots.

13. The name of Soc'rates is at once the glory and the reproach of Athens. This illustrious philosopher, who, on account of his high moral views, is the boast of the pagan world, and who attempted to introduce among his countrymen worther sentiments of religion, and a better understand.

of the duties of life, was accused of corrupting the youth, and condemned by the assembly of Athens to die by poison.

14. During his imprisonment, which lasted thirty days, he conducted himself with the greatest dignity; refused to escape when opportunity offered; conversed with his friends on topics of moral philosophy, particularly the immortality of the soul, and, when the appointed time arrived, drank the fatal cup of hemlock, and died with the greatest composure.

15. The philosophy of Soc'rates, which forms an important epoch in the history of the human mind, was wholly promulgated in conversation, not in writing; but his doctrines and character have been handed down to us by two of his most gifted pupils, *Plato* and *Xenophon*. He turned all the powers of his mind against the atheists, materialists, and skeptics. He attended but little to physical science; he ridiculed the metaphysical speculations of his predecessors; and introduced moral philosophy, by teaching mankind to govern their passions, and to consider their actions and their duties. From this it was said of him, that he drew down philosophy from heaven to earth.

16. About the end of the Peloponnesian war, the death of Darius left the throne of Persia to his son Artaxerxes II; but his brother Cyrus attempted to dethrone him, and for this purpose he employed upwards of 10,000 Grecian mercenaries; and after the battle of Cunaza, near Babylon, Cyrus, and also the Grecian commander, were slain. The remainder of the Grecian army, under the command of Xen'ophon, made a retreat, in which they encountered incredible difficulties and dangers, in traversing an enemy's country of 1,600 miles in extent, from Babylon to the shores of the Euxine.

17. This celebrated return of the Greeks, usually called the *Retreat of the Ten Thousand*, is beautifully described by Xen'ophon, and is considered one of the most extraordinary exploits in military history; but it is to be regretted that the pupil and biographer of Socrates should have gathered his laurels in so vile a trade as that of a mere hireling military adventurer

18. The Greek cities of Asia having taken part with Cyrus, the Spartans, under their king Agesila'us, engaged in their defence, and thus became involved in the war with the Persians. But the king of Persia, by means of bribes, induced Athens, Thebes, Corinth, and other Grecian states, jealous of the Lacedæmonians, to join in a league against them. Agesila'us was obliged to return from Asia Minor to protect his

own country; and he defeated the confederates at Corenéa, but the Spartan fleet was soon after defeated by the Athenians

under Conon near Cnidos.

19. After various vicissitudes, all parties became weary of the war, and a treaty of peace was concluded, called the peace of Antal cidas, from the Lacedæmonian who negotiated it. The conditions were, that all the Grecian cities of Asia should belong to Persia, and that all the others should be completely independent, except that the islands of Lemnos, Scyros, and Imbros, should remain under the dominion of Athens.

20. While Athens and Sparta had been for some time declining, Thebes, emerging from obscurity, rose, for a short period, to a degree of splendor superior to that of all the other states. The Spartans, jealous of its rising greatness, took ad vantage of some internal dissensions, and seized upon its citadel; but it was recovered, and the independence of Thebes was again restored by the efforts of Pelop'idas and Epaminon'das two famous Thebans, admired for their talents and exploits, and for their faithful friendship for each other.

21. A war between the two states ensued; and the Theban army of 6,000 men, commanded by *Epaminon'das* and *Pelop'idas*, gained the memorable battle of *Leuc'tra*. In this battle, the Thebans lost only 300 men, while the Spartans lost 4,000, together with their king *Cleom'brotus*; and it was with mortification and astonishment that they saw themselves defeated by numbers greatly inferior, a thing unknown for ages.

22. The victorious Thebans, headed by Epaminon'das, and joined by many of the Grecian states, entered the territories of Laceuæmon, and overran all Laconia with fire and sword, to the very suburbs of the capital. This country had not been ravaged by a hostile army for 600 years; and the boast of the inhabitants, "that never had the women of Sparta beheld the smoke of an enemy's camp," was now done away.

23. The Theban commander, having completely humbled the power of Sparta, returned to Thebes with his victorious army: not long after, the war being renewed, he gained another great victory over the Lacedæmonians, commanded by Agesila'us, and assisted by the Athenians, at Mantine'a; but he

fell mortally wounded in the moment of victory.

24. Epaminon das is regarded as one of the greatest characters of Greece, equally eminent as a philosopher, a statesman, a general, and a citizen. He raised his country to its highest eminence in military renown, and its power and splendor perished with him.

25. The battle of Mantine'a was folkwed by a peace between all the Grecian states, establishing the independence of each city. Soon afterward the Spartans, under the command of Agesila'us, proceeded to Egypt, to assist Tachos, the king of that country, against Nectane'bus, who aspired to the throne. But when the Egyptians, who crowded to see the famous warrior, beheld a little, deformed, lame old man, sitting on the sea shore, clad in homely attire, they could scarcely conceal their disappointment. In consequence of some personal affront received from Tachos, Agesila'us deserted him, and raised his competitor to the throne. Having set sail for Sparta, he died on the coast of Egypt, leaving a high reputation as an able statesman and warrior.

SECTION IX.

Philip of Macedon: Sacred War: Battle of Chæronea. Alexander the Great: Conquest of Persia: Battles of the Granicus, Issus, and Arbela: Alexander's Death.— From B. C. 360 to 324.

- 1. After the death of Agesila'us, little occurs in the history of Greece deserving notice, till the appearance of *Philip* of Macedon. The several states were now in an abject condition, the inhabitants having greatly degenerated from the patriotism and valor of their ancestors.
- 2. Athens, at this time the most prominent of the republics, was sunk in luxury and dissipation; yet she was distinguished for her cultivation of literature and the arts. Sparta, weakened by the new independence of Peloponne'sus, and corrupted by the introduction of gold, had abandoned her characteristic simplicity and severity of manners, and was greatly reduced from her former greatness. Under these circumstances, Philip formed the ambitious project of bringing the whole of Greece under his dominion.
- 3. The kingdom of *Mac'edon*, or *Macedonia*, had existed upwards of 400 years, but it had not risen to any considerable eminence; it had formed no part of the Greek confederacy, and had had no voice in the Amphictyon'ic council. The inhabitants boasted of the same origin with the Greeks, but they had had little intercourse with the mother country, and were considered by the latter, as barbarians.

4. The Macedonian Empire, which was commenced by Philip, and completed by his son Alexander, formed the third great empire of antiquity. It is sometimes called the Grecian Empire, because Greece, in its most extensive sense, included Macedonia, and because all Greece was subject to Philip and Alexander.

5. Philip, when only ten years old, was sent as a hostage to Thebes, and there enjoyed the advantage of an excellent Grecian education under Epaminon'das. At the age of 24 years he ascended the throne. He possessed great military and political talents, and was eminently distinguished for his consummate artifice and address. In order to accomplish his design of bringing all the states of Greece under his dominion, he cherished dissensions among them, and employed agents or pensionaries in each, with a view of having every

public measure directed to his advantage.

6. The Phocians had long cultivated a valuable tract, called the Cirrhæan plain, which, it was now maintained, had been, in a former age, consecrated to the Delphian Apollo; and it was decreed, by the council of the Amphictyons, that they should cease to use the sacred land under the penalty of a heavy fine From this circumstance a contest arose, called the Sacrea War, in which almost all the states of Greece took a part, and which was carried on with spirit for ten years. The Thebans, Locrians, Thessalians, and others, undertook to punish the Phocians, who were supported by Athens, Sparta, and some other states.

7. Philip, having taken and destroyed the city of Olynthus, at length availed himself of the opportunity, which this war afforded, of bringing his power into full contact with the Grecian states. He proposed to act as arbitrator of the matter in dispute, and procured himself to be elected a member of the Amphictyonic council; and he was afterwards styled the Amphictyonic general. The Athenians, suspicious of his designs, refused to acknowledge the election, and, being now guided by the inflammatory eloquence of Demos'thenes, rather than by the pacific counsels of Pho'cion, they were plunged into a destructive contest with their powerful rival and neighbor.

8. A second Sacred War drew Philip again into Greece. The Locrians of Amphis's having encroached upon the consecrated ground of Delphi, and having refused to obey the decrees of the Amphictyonic council, Philip was invited, as their general, to vindicate their authority by force of arms. I'me Athenians and Thebans, roused to the utmost enthusi-

asm by Demos'thenes, united to resist the growing power of this ambitious monarch. The two armies met at *Chærone'a* and, after a most obstinate battle, Philip gained a decisive victory, which secured to him an entire ascendency in Greece.

9. It was not the policy of the conqueror to treat the several states as a vanquished people. He permitted them to retain their separate in rependent governments, while he di-

rected and controlled all the public measures.

10. Philip next projected the invasion of *Persia*, and, convoking a general council of the states, laid before them his design, which was highly popular, and he was chosen commander-in-chief of the united forces of all the states of Greecc. Having made formidable preparations for his expedition, and being just ready for his departure, he was assassinated by a captain of his guards, while solemnizing the nuptials of his daughter. The news of Philip's death caused the most tumultuous joy among the Athenians, who indulged the vain hope of again recovering their liberty.

11. Alexander (afterward surnamed the Great), the son of Philip, succeeded to the throne of Macedon, at the age of 20 years. He had been educated by Aristotle, the most eminent philosopher of his time, and, at an early age, he gave proofs of a love of learning, a generous and heroic disposition,

distinguished talents, and unbounded ambition.

12. Demos'thenes exerted all his eloquence to persuade his countrymen to unite against the youthful king. But Alexander, having reduced to subjection some barbarous nations to the north of Macedon, turned the whole force of his arms upon Greece. The Thebans, who had risen in rebellion, were defeated with great slaughter, their city razed to the ground, and the inhabitants, to the number of 30,000, sold for slaves. These dreadful acts of severity so intimidated the other states that they immediately submitted to his dominion.

13. Alexander then assembled the deputies of the Grecian s'atcs at Cor'inth, and renewed the proposal of invading Persia, and he was appointed, as his father had been, generalissimo. He had, for his companions in arms, *Parme'nio* and other officers, who had distinguished themselves in the wars of

Philip

14. With an army of 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse, the sum of only 70 talents, and provisions merely for a single month, he crossed the Hel'lespont, in order, with means apparently so inadequate, to accomplish his arduous enterprise. He first

proceeded to the site of Ilium, or Troy, and offered sacrifices to the manes of the heroes who fell in the Trojan war, particularly Achil'les, whom he pronounced to be the most fortunate of men, in having Patro'clus for his friend, and Homer for his

panegyrist.

15. Dari'us Codom'anus, king of Persia, resolving to crush at once the young hero, whom he styled "the mad boy," met him, on the banks of the Grani'cus, with an army of 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horse. Here an obstinate battle was fought, in which the Persians were defeated, with the loss, according to Plutarch, of 22,000 men, while the Macedonians lost only 34. In this battle Alexander escaped very narrowly with his life. Being attacked by two officers, one of whom was about to cleave his head with a battle-axe, he was preserved by Cly'tus, who prevented the blow by running the officer through the body with a spear.

16. The consequences of this victory were important to Alexander, as it put him in possession of the city of Sardis, with all its riches; and he soon after took Mile'tus, Halicar-

nas'sus, and other places of importance.

17. The next campaign opened early in the spring, when the great battle of Issus was fought. The Persian army, stated at about 600,000 men, was defeated with prodigious slaughter, no less than 110,000 being killed, while the Macedonians lost only 450. The engagement took place in a narrow defile, where only a small part of the Persian army could be brought into action.

18. The mother, wife, and two daughters of Darius, fell into the hands of the conqueror, whe treated his royal captives with the greatest delicacy and respect. Darius, hearing of Alexan der's kindness towards his family, sent an embassy to him, offering, for their ransom, the sum of 10,000 talents, (about £2,000,000 sterling,) and proposing a treaty of peace and alliance, with the further offer of his daughter in marriage, and all the country between the Euphrates and the Ægæ'an sea as her dower.

19. When the offer was laid before Alexander's council, Parme'nio is reported to have said, "If I were Alexander, I would accept the terms." "And so would I," replied Alexander, "were I Parme'nio." The answer which he returned to the proposal imported that he had invaded Asia to avenge the unprovoked aggressions of the Persian monarchs that, if Darius would come to him, and ask for his wife and family, he would willingly deliver them to him; but, if he proposed to

dispute the sovereignty, he would find him ready to oppose

20. He next directed his course towards the rich and commercial city of *Tyre*, and demanded admittance into it, in order to perform a sacrifice to the Tyrian Her'cules. But the Tyrians refusing to grant it, he was so much exasperated, that he resolved to reduce the place, which he accomplished after a siege of seven months. On this occasion he exercised a piece of wanton cruelty, by ordering 2,000 men to be crucified, in addition to all those who were put to the sword, or sold into slavery.

21. Having invested and taken the city of Gaza, which made an obstinate resistance, he sold 10,000 of the inhabitants for slaves, and dragged Be'tis, its brave defender, at the

wheels of his chariot.

22. Alexander next proceeded to Egypt, which was then subject to Persia; but it readily submitted to his authority. Amidst incredible fatigues, he led his army through the deserts of Lybia to visit the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, and, as the reward of his labors, was gratified by receiving the title of the son of Jupiter. While in Egypt, he commenced a more useful and lasting monument of his greatness, by founding the city of Alexan'dria, afterward the capital of Lower Egypt, the seat of the Ptolemies, and, for a long time, one of the greatest commercial cities in the world.

23. Returning from this romantic expedition, he received again advantageous proposals from Darius, who offered to surrender to him his whole dominions to the west of the Euphrates; but he haughtily rejected the offer, telling him, "the

world could no more admit two masters than two suns."

24. Having crossed the Euphrates, with an army of nearly 50,000 men, he met that of Darius, which is said to have amounted to about 700,000. A tremendous battle ensued, in which the Persians were entirely defeated, with a loss stated at 300,000 men, while that of Alexander was only about 500. This engagement took place near the village of Gaugame'la, but it is usually called the battle of Arbe'la, from a town farther distant.

25. This great battle decided the fate of Persia, and introduced a new era into the history of the world. From that period, Europe has maintained the superiority over Asia, which was then acquired. Darius, having first escaped into Media, and afterwards into Bactria, was there betrayed by Bessus, the satrap of the province, and murdered; and, not long after, the whole Persian empire submitted to the contriers.

26. Alexander, not yet satiated with conquest, penetrated into India, and, in a great battle, defeated Po'rus, an illustrious sovereign of that country. He was projecting further achievements, when his soldiers, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed, and demanded that they might be permitted to return to their country.

27. Finding it impossible to overcome their reluctance, he returned to the Indus, whence, sending round his fleet to the Persian gulf under Ne-ar'chus, he marched his army across the desert to Persep'olis. Here, in a fit of frenzy, he ordered the city to be set on fire. From Persep'olis he returned to Babylon, which he chose for the seat of his Asiatic empire. and, having resided here some time, he was seized with a fever, brought on, according to some writers, by excessive drinking, and soon after died, in the 33d year of his age, and the 13th of his reign.

28. Alexander was the most renowned hero of antiquity, surpassing all others in the rapidity, extent, and splendor of his conquests. Some other conquerors have shed more blood, and have waged war on a more cruel system; but no one ever bestowed such fatal brilliancy upon the hateful lust of conquest; nor has any other person, perhaps, been the cause of more misery to mankind, if, to the slaughter occasioned by his own wars, we take into the account the influence which his example has had on the career of others who have made him their model.

29. His extraordinary abilities, his romantic and daring spirit, and the unparalleled splendor of his successes, have been the more mischievous, in their example, from the amiable and generous qualities which formed a part of his character. He possessed talents which might have rendered him distinguished as a statesman and a benefactor to his species; vet it was to his military renown alone that he owed the sur-

name of Great.

30. Though, in the early part of his career, he was distinguished for self-government, yet he became intoxicated by his extraordinary success; and his vanity, which was naturally excessive, being cherished by the extravagant adulations of the sycophants who surrounded him, he was, at length, induced to believe himself the son of Jupiter, and a god, that he could do no wrong, and that his will ought to be the supreme law to his subjects. With these views, he gave himself up to unbounded indulgence, and to acts of the most atrocious cruelty and ingratitude.

31. His most celebrated general, Parme'nio, who had assisted hum in gaining all his victories, he caused to be assassinated on mere suspicion. His friend Clytus, who had saved his life at the Grani'cus, he run through the body with a spear, because he contradicted him, when heated with wine. He caused the philosopher Callis'thenes to be put to death, with the most cruel tortures, because he refused to pay him adoration as a divinity.

32. His personal qualities and exploits were such as mankind are too much inclined to admire; and his history shows how easily uninterrupted success degrades the character and corrupts the heart; and how necessary disappointments and misfortunes are to teach us moderation, justice, and humanity.

SECTION X.

Alexander's Successors: Demosthenes: Phocion: Demetrius Phalereus: Achæan League: Philopæmen: Subjugation of Macedonia and of Greece.—From B. C. 324 to 146.

1. Alexander named no successor, but, on his death-bed, he gave his ring to *Perdic'cas*, one of his generals; and, upon being asked to whom he left his empire, he replied, "to the most worthy." His vast empire was soon rent in pieces by the greedy soldiers who had assisted him in the acquisition of it, and a period of confusion, bloodshed, and crime, ensued,

to which civilized nations scarcely furnish a parallel.

2. The generals of the army appointed Philip Aridæ'us, the brother of Alexander, with his infant son by Roza'na, to succeed him, and Perdic'cas was made regent. The empire was divided into 33 governments, distributed among as many of the principal officers. Hence arose a series of intrigues, and fierce and bloody wars, which resulted in the total extirpation of Alexander's family, and, after the defeat of Antig'onus, one of his generals, (who had obtained possession of his principal dominions in Asia,) in the famous battle of Ipsus, in a new division of the empire into four kingdoms, namely, that of Egypt, under Ptol'emy; Macedonia, including Greece, under Cassan'der; Thrace, together with Bithynia, under Lysim'achus; and Syria, &c., under Seleu'cus.

3. The kingdom of Thrace lasted only till B. C. 281, when Lysim achus was defeated and slain by Seleu'cus, and that of

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Macedonia till the battle of Pydna, B. C. 168. The two most powerful kingdoms were Syria and Egypt; the former continued under the sceptre of the Seleu'cidæ, and the latter under that of the Ptolemies, till they were both annexed to the Roman empire.

4. During the progress of Alexander's conquests, various attempts were made by the Grecian states to throw off the yoke of Macedonia. The Spartens, especially, excited a powerful insurrection, but they were subdued by Antip'ater, who had been left by Alexander to govern Macedonia in his absence.

5. The news of Alexander's death occasioned great joy at Athens, and the eloquence of *Demos'thenes* was again exerted to rouse his countrymen to secure their liberty. But he was still opposed by his former antagonist, the incorruptible and prudent *Pho'cion*, who continued a strenuous advocate for peace, and whose language was, "Since the Athenians are no longer able to fill their wonted glorious sphere, let them adopt counsels suited to their abilities, and endeavor to court the friendship of a power which they cannot provoke but to their ruin."

6. The counsels of Demos'thenes prevailed so far, that the Greeks formed a confederacy, and made an effort to recover their liberty; but they were finally defeated by Antip'ater, and Athens was obliged to purchase peace by the sacrifice of her ten chief public speakers, among whom the renowned orator Demos'thenes was included. But he put an end to his life by poison, in order to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies.

7. Antip'ater was succeeded, in the government of Macedonia, by Polysper'chon, who restored, for a short time, the Grecian states to independence. Athens renewed its scenes of turbulence, and proceeded to put to death the friends of Antip'ater, and, among others, the venerable Pho'cion, who was upwards of 80 years of age. He was eminent for his public and private virtues, and had been 45 times appointed governor of Athens. To a friend, who lamented his fate, he said, "This is no more than what I expected; this treatment the most illustrious citizens of Athens have received before me."

8. Polysper'chon was succeeded by Cassander, who appointed *Deme'trius Phale'reus* governor of Athens. Under his wise and beneficent government, which continued 12 years, the city

enjoyed quiet and prosperity, and the Athenians testified their

gratitude by erecting to him 360 statues.

9. From this time, Athens never enjoyed any thing more than a precarious independence. Her political power and greatness had ceased, and her citizens, formerly so distinguished for their spirit of liberty and independence, became no less so for their excessive flattery and abject servility.

10. From this period to the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans, the different states underwent a variety of revelutions; but they present little that is interesting, and still less that is pleasing. An immense number of Gauls, under their king Brennus, ravaged the country; but they were at last.

mostly cut off.

11. Scarcely recovering from the inroads of these barbarians, the states of Peloponne'sus were involved in calamities by the invasion of the celebrated Pyrrhus, king of Epi'rus, the greatest general of his age. He made an unsuccessful attack on Sparta, and was afterward slain, at the siege of Argos, with a tile thrown by a woman from the top of a house

12. The last effort for maintaining the liberty and independence of Greece was made by a confederacy, styled the Acha'an League, which was at first formed by only four small cities of Peloponnesus; not long after, eight other cities joined, and, at last, most of the Grecian states. The government of this confederacy was committed to Ara'tus, with the title of pretor. He formed the design of establishing the independence of all Greece, but the jealousy of some of the principal states rendered the scheme abortive.

13. Ara'tus was succeeded by Philopæ'men, a man of integrity and distinguished talents, styled "the last of the Greeks," because, after him, Greece produced no leader worthy of her former glory. Having triumphed over the Spartans and Ætolians, he was taken and put to death in an expedition against

the revolted Messenians.

14. The Romans, who had now become the most powerful nation in the world, being solicited by the Ætolians to afford them aid against the Macedonians, readily complied with the request; and their army, under the command of Quin'tius Flamin'ius, defeated Philip, king of Macedon, at Cynoceph'au-e, and proclaimed liberty to the Grecian states. Nearly 30 years afterwards, a second Roman army, commanded by Paulus Æmil'ius, entered Greece, in a war against Per'seus, son

of Philip, who was entirely defeated in the battle of Pydna, and was led captive to Rome, to grace the triumph of the conqueror, and Macedonia was reduced to a Roman province.

15. The Remans, jealous of the power of the Achwan League, endeavered to weaken it by cherishing divisions among the states, and by corrupting the principal citizens. At length the Spartans, in a contest with the Achaan states, sought the aid of the Remans. Metel'lus led his legions into Greece, and gained a complete victory over the Achwan army. The remainder of the Achwan forces having shut themselves up in Cor'inth, the Roman consul, Mum'mius, completed the conquest by taking and destroying that city. The Achwan constitution was soon after dissolved, and the whole of Greece was reduced to a Roman province, under the name of Acha'ia.

16. But Greece, though subject to the Roman arms, acquired, by her arts of peace, her learning, genius, and taste, a silent superiority over her conquerors, and was regarded with respect. The most distinguished Romans were educated in the Grecian schools of philosophy; Rome derived her learning from Athens, and the victors became the disciples of the vanquished.

17. In reviewing the history of this extraordinary peopse we see much to admire, and much also to condemn. With regard to genius, taste, learning, patriotism, love of liberty, and heroism, they were unrivalled among the nations of antiquity

18. In perusing the history of Athens, a circumstance which must fercibly impress the reader, is the injustice and ingratitude which she frequently manifested towards many of her best citizens, her most illustrious patriots and philosophers. Some of the most distinguished victims of this injustice were Milti'ades, Aristi'des, Themis'tocles, Ci'mon, Pho'cion, and Scc'rates. These were all sentenced to death or banishment, yet, not long after their condemnation, the Athenians, with their characteristic fickleness and inconsistency, did ample justice to their merit, and punished their accusers.

19. In no period of Grecian history does there appear to have existed that virtuous age, which many are accustomed to describe more in the spirit of poetical romance than of historical truth. The standard both of public and private morality, in all the states, and at all times, was low; and the most illustrious men that figure in the history of Greece, were little scrupulous in the choice of means for effecting their public

objects, but seemed to think it right to secure the ascendency of their own country, to humble a rival state, or to carry on designs of conquest, at any expense of blood or of suffering.

20. "It is evident," says Mitford, "from the writings of Xen'ophon and Pla'to, that, in their age, the boundaries of right and wrong, justice and injustice, honesty and dishonesty, were little determined by any generally received principles.—That might gave right, especially in public transactions, was a tenet generally avowed."

21. The earlier times were characterized by violence and rapine. In a later age, that preceding the Christian era, the philosophy of Epicurus had gained the ascendency, and the subtilties of skepticism, and corruption of manners, had reached a height of extravagance which it seemed difficult to exceed. The history of the world had demonstrated the necessity of some better guide to man than human wisdom had been able to afford him, either as a member of society, or as a being formed for immortality.

For a chronological view of Grecian History, see page 322.]

SECTION XI.

GRECIAN ANTIQUITIES.

Grecian Sects of Philosophy.

The Ionic sect, the most ancient school of philosophy among the Greeks, was founded by Tha'les, who was distinguished for his knowledge of geometry and astronomy.

The Italian or Pythagore'an sect was founded by Pythag'oras, who taught the transmigration of souls through

different bodies.

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The Socratic school was founded by Soc'rates, who was esteemed the wisest and most virtuous of the Greeks, and the

father of moral philosophy.

The Cynics, a sect founded by Antis'thenes, and supported by Divg'enes, condemned knowledge as useless, renounced social enjoyments and the conveniences of life, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective.

The Academic sect was founded by Plato, a philosopher who has had an extensive empire over the minds of men.

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owing to the sublimity of his doctrines, and the eloquence with which he has propounded them He gave his lectures in the groves of Acade'mus, near Athens.

The Peripatetic sect was founded by Aristotle, who established his school in the Lyce'um at Athens. His philosophy predominated over the minds of men during 16 centuries.

The Skeptical sect was founded by Pyrrho, who inculcated

universal doubt as the only true wisdom.

The Stoic sect was founded by Zene. The Stoics inculcated fortitude of mind, denied that pain is an evil, and endeavered to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity.

The Epicure'ans, named from their founder, Epicu'rus, held that man's supreme happiness consists in pleasure.

"The Greek philesophy," says Tytler, "affords little more than a picture of the imbecility and caprice of the human mind. Its teachers, instead of experiment and observation, satisfied themselves with constructing theories; and these, wanting fact for their basis, have only served to perplex the understanding, and retard equally the advancement of sound morality, and the progress of useful knowledge."

The Seven Wise Men.

The seven wise men of Greece were Tha'les, of Mile'tus; Solon, of Athens; Bias, of Prie'ne; Chilo, of Lacedæ'mon: Pit'tacus, of Mityle'ne; Cleobu'lus, of Lindos; and Perian'der, of Cor'inth.—Instead of Perian'der, some enumerate My'son, and others Anachar'sis.

The Council of the Amphictyons.

This council is supposed to have been instituted by Amphic'tyon, the son of Deuca'lion, king of Thes'saly, at an early period of the history of Greece. It was composed of deputies from the different states, and resembled the diet of the German empire. At its first institution, it is said to have consisted of 12 deputies, from 12 different cities or states; but the number of deputies was afterwards increased to 24 and to 30. They usually met twice a year; in the spring at Delphi, and in the autumn at Thermop'ylæ.

The objects of this assembly were to unite in strict amity the states which were represented; to consult for their mutual welfare and defence; to decide differences between cities; to

try offences against the laws of nations; and also to protect the oracle of Delphi.

Oracles.

The Greeks were in the habit of consulting oracles on all important occasions,—as when they were about to declare war, to conclude a peace, to institute a new form of government, or to enact laws. The most celebrated oracles were those of Apollo at Delphi and Delos, the oracle of Jupiter at Dodo'na. and that of Tropho'nius.

Public Games.

There were four public and solemn games in Greece,—the

Olympic, Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian.

The exercises practised at these games were leaping, running, throwing, boxing, and wrestling; also horse and chariot races, and contests between poets, orators, musicians, philosophers, and artists of different descriptions.

Running was much esteemed among the ancient Greeks. Leaping was sometimes performed with weights in the hands, or upon the head or shoulders. In boxing, the combatants held in their hands balls of stone or lead, while their arms were guarded with thongs of leather.

The Olympic games, which were instituted by Her'cules. in honor of Jupiter Olympius, were celebrated at the town of Olympia, in the first month of every fifth year, and lasted five days. They drew together an immense concourse from all parts of Greece, and numbers even from foreign countries. No one was permitted to contend unless he had prepared himself, by continual exercises, during ten months, in the public gymnasium at Elis.

The contenders were obliged to take an oath that they would use no unlawful means to obtain the reward. The prize bestowed on the victor was a crown of olive; yet trifling as was this reward, it was considered as the highest honor, and was sought for with the utmost eagerness. The victor was greeted with loud acclamations, and his return home was in the

style of a warlike conqueror.

The Greeks computed their time by the celebrations of these games, the space intervening between one celebration

and another being called an Olympiad.

The Pyth'ian games were celebrated every 5th year, in the second year of every Olympiad, near Delphi, in honor of Apollo. The victors were crowned with laurel.

The Ne'mean games were celebrated in the town of Ne'mea, every third year. The victors were crowned with parsley.

The Isth'mian games were so called from their being celebrated on the isthmus of Cor'inth. They were instituted in honor of Neptune; observed every 3d or 5th year; and held so sacred and inviolable, that a public calamity could not prevent their celebration. The victors were rewarded with a garland of pine leaves.

Government of Athens.

Classes of inhabitants. The inhabitants of Athens were divided into three classes; citizens or freemen, foreigners or

sojourners, and slaves.

The citizens were the privileged class, and had the government exclusively in their hands. They were divided into 10 tribes, but they were not limited to the city, a part of them residing in the small boroughs of Attica. The privilege of citizenship was highly esteemed, and was obtained with much difficulty.

The sojourners were permitted to exercise trades in the city, but had no vote in the assembly, nor could they be raised to

any office.

The slaves or servants were the most numerous portion of the inhabitants of Attica. They were in a state of hopeless servitude, wholly at the disposal of their masters, and performed the labor in the fields, the mines, and in private houses.

Archons and other magistrates. The supreme executive power was vested in nine archons, elected annually. They wore garlands of myrtle, and were protected from violence and insult.

The first or chief of the nine was called the archon, by way of eminence. He had the care of widows and minors through out Attica, and determined all causes respecting wills. He was punished with death, if convicted of drunkenness while in office.

The second archon, styled Bas'ileus, had the superintendence of religious ceremonies, and decided all disputes among priests

The third archon, called Pol'emarch, had originally the superintendence of military affairs; but his jurisdiction was afterwards confined to strangers and sojourners, and to the appointment of games in honor of those who fell war, and to the care of the education of their children.

The six other archins were called Thesmoth'eta. They presided at the election of inferior magistrates, ratified public contracts or leagues, received complaints against persons guilty of various offences, and decided disputes respecting trade and commerce.

The Athenian magistrates were divided into three sorts; 1st, the Chirotone'ti, who were chosen by the people, in a lawful assembly, in which they voted by holding up their hands; 2d, the Clero'ti, who, after having been approved by the people, were promoted by lots drawn in the temple of Theseus; 3d, the Arcti, who were extraordinary officers appoint

ed by particular tribes to take care of any business.

The poorer citizens were admitted to a share in the government, and might aspire to preferments; yet the higher offices were generally bestowed upon the most distinguished persons. The candidates for office were obliged to give an account of their past life in the public forum. While in office, the magnetrates were liable to trial for an accusation of any failure in the discharge of their duties; and, after their office had expired, they were obliged to give an account of their management, and during 30 days every man was allowed to bring forward his complaint.

Assemblies. The assemblies of the people were composed of all the citizens or freemen of Athens; all foreigners, slaves, women, children, and such persons as had received an infamous punishment, being excluded. They were held four times in 35 days; the place of meeting was the forum, the pnyx, or the temple of Bacchus.

No business could be transacted in an assembly containing less than 6,000 citizens. When the question under consideration was sufficiently discussed, the president called for a decision, which was manifested by show of hands.

Senate. The senate, which was elected annually, originally consisted of 400, but was afterwards increased to 500. It was the business of this body to examine, with care, all matters, before they were proposed to the people and to see that nothing was

submitted to them which was contrary public good. The senate also examined the account the magistrates, took care on the fleet, and punished such onences as were not forbidden any written law.

Areopagus. The name of this court, which signifies Mars' Hill, was taken from the place where it was held. This was the most distinguished and venerable court of justice in ancient times, and took cognizance of crimes, abuses, and innovations, either in religion or government. The Arcop'agites were guardians of education and manners, and inspected the To laugh in their assembly was an unpardonable act of levity.

Ostracism. One of the most iniquitous and absurd peculiarities in the government of Athens, and some other of the Grecian states, was the practice of the Ostracism, a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the individual most offensive to him; and he who was marked out by the greatest number of votes, was banished from his country for 5, 10, or 20 years. It was not nevessary that any crime should be alleged, and the property and honor of the exple remained unhurt.

This barbarous institution was often subservient to the worst purposes, and stained the character of the Athenians with many

flagrant instances of injustice and ingratitude.

Government of Sparta.

Classes of inhabitants. The inhabitants of Sparta consisted of citizens and slaves or Helots.

The citizens were divided into two classes, the Homoii, and the Hypomiones; the former alone could be elected to office; the latter, consisting of the poorer citizens, were only allowed to vote at the elections.

The slaves or Helots were much more numerous than the freemen. They performed all the servile labor in the field and in the house; also served as sailors in the fleet, and were attached to the army, every soldier being attended by one or more.

Kings. The two chief magistrates of the republic of Sparta were styled kings; but their power was very limited. They presided in the senate, and were high priests of the nation

One of them dampended the army, while the other usually remained at home administer justice. They appeared in public places without any retinue, and could scalely be distinguished from other citizens.

Senate. The senate of Sparta consisted of the two kings and 28 elective members who were above 60 years of age, and retained their dignity till death. It constituted the supreme council of the republic, and considered all questions relating to peace and war, and other important affairs of state. None were admitted into this august assembly except such as had been distinguished from youth for prudence and virtue.

Ephori. The Eph'ori were five Spartan magistrates elected annually by the people, and might be taken from every rank of citizens. It was their duty to inspect the education of youth, and the administration of justice.

Assemblies. Two public assemblies met at Sparta; one called the general assembly, attended by all the freemen of Laconia; the other, called the lesser assembly, composed of the freemen of the metropolis who were above 30 years of age. The general assembly was convened when questions relating to peace or war, or other matters of general concern, were to be determined. The lesser assembly was held at every full moon, and regulated the succession of the crown, and discussed matters relating to government and religion.

SYRIA UNDER THE SELEUCIDÆ.

1. A withe death of Alexander the seat, Antigonus, one of his generals, obtained possession in his principal dominions in Asia. But Seleu'cus, another officer of Alexander, and son of Antiochus, one of Philip's generals, revolted against Antigonus, and took possession of Babylon; and by the battle of Ipsus, in which Antigonus was defeated and slain, Seleu'cus was confirmed in his authority. He founded the kingdom of Syria, or Syro-Media, which, reckoning from the time of his taking Babylon to the period when Syria became a Roman province, lasted 247 years. It was governed by 23 kings, who were styled the Seleu'cidæ, from the name of the founder.

2. Seleu'cus was a great general, an able and popular sovereign, and was surnamed *Nica'tor* or *Conqueror*, on account of 23 battles which he gained. He founded 16 large cities, the most famous of which were An'tioch, Seleu'cia, Apame'a, and Laodice'a. *An'tioch*, which became the capital of the kingdom, was a very large and splendid city, styled "The Queen of the East," and also "The Eye of the Christian Church." The disciples of Christ were here first called *Christians*; and this city, at an early period, became the seat of a

Christian patriarch.

3. Seleu'cus, having made war against Lysim'achus, king of Thrace, defeated and slew him in battle, but was himself soon after assassinated by Ptolemy Cerau'nus, who was afterwards king of Macedon. He was succeeded by his son Anti-ochus Soter, during whose reign the Gauls made an irruption into Asia Minor, and founded the state of Galatia.

4. The reigns of his successors, Anti'ochus Theos and Seleu'cus Callini'cus, were disturbed by conspiracies and by wars, particularly with the Parthians and Bactrians, who re-

volted from the government.

5. One of the most distinguished of this race of sovereigns was Anti'ochus the Great, who had a long reign of 36 years, and was as much distinguished for his faults and misfortunes, as for his great qualities and successes. His reign was a continued warfare, presenting alternately victories and defeats. He subdued several governors of different provinces who revolted from him. In a war with Ptolemy, king of Egypt, after having gained many advantages, he lost a great battle at Raphia

He carried his victorious arms into Media, Parthia, Hyrcania. and India.

6. Anti ochus was visited by Han'nibal, the great Carthaginian general, who endeavored to persuade him make war upon the Romans, by invading Italy. Instead this, showever, he invaded Greece, but was defeated by the Romans. and compelled to retire into Asia. Being pursued by a Roman army, commanded by Scipio Asiat'icus, he was entirely defeated in a great bath, on the plains of Magne'sia, and compelled to accept of peace on humiliating terms. He was atterwards put to death by his own officers.

7. The next two kings were Seleu'cus Philop'ater and Anti'ochus Epiph'anes, sons of Anti'ochus the Great. latter profaned and plundered the temple of Jerusalem, and attempted to abolish the Jewish worship. But the Jews, under Ju'das Maccabæ'us, revolted, and defeated the army of Antiochus, who immediately engaged in a design to exterminate the whole nation; but before he had effected any thing, he

died in a sudden and signal manner.

S. The succeeding reigns of the Seleu cida exhibit a series of assassinations, conspiracies, and contests, till Syria was finally conquered by *Pompey*, 65 B. C., and made a Roman province.

THE SELEUCIDÆ, KINGS OF SYRIA.

[The figures denote the commencement of the reign of each.]

B.C. 312 Seleucus I. Nicator.

283. Antiochus I. Soter.

261. Antiochus II. Theos.

246. Seleucus II. Callinicus.

226. Seleucus III. Ceraunus.

223. Antiochus III. the Great. 185. Seleucus IV. Philopator.

175. Antiochus IV. Epiphanes.

164. Antiochus V. Eupator.

162. Demetrius I. Soter.

150. Alexander I.

146. Demetrius II. Nicator.

144. Antiochus VI

143. Tryphon. 139. Antiochus VII.

127. Alexander II.

123. Antiochus VIII 112. Antiochus IX.

95. Antiochus X.

94. Antiochus XI.

87. Antiochus XII.

83. Tigranes.

69. Antiochus XIII. Asiaticus deposed by Pompey, 65 B. C

EGYPT UNDER THE PTOLEMIES.

1. Of all the conquests of Alexander the Great, Egypt enjoyed the earliest and most lasting prosperity. The dynasty of the *Ptol'emies*, which, reckoning from the death of *Alexander* to that of *Cleopa'tra*, lasted 293 years, forms a conspic-

uous period in the history of that country.

2. Ptol'emy Lagus, surnamed also Soter, was the reputed son of Philip, king of Macedon, by a concubine, and half-brother of Alexander the Great. At the time of Alexander's death, he was governor of Egypt; and after the division of the empire into four monarchies, he became king of the country, and had a prosperous reign of 39 years. He was a man of great abilities, eminent as a general and a statesman, and was also a man of learning, and a great patron of literature.

3. He founded the famous library of Alexandria, established a museum, or academy, which became the abode of learned men, and erected the celebrated watch-tower of Pharos, which was sometimes reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world. He built a number of new cities, and caused decayed ones to emerge from their ruins, rendered the canals again navigable, encouraged commerce and agriculture, restored prosperity to

Egypt, and conquered Syria.

4. Ptolemy Soter was succeeded by his second son, Ptol'emy Philadel'phus, who followed, in a great measure, the steps of his father, and had a prosperous and splendid reign. He founded cities, erected magnificent edifices, finished the canal from Suez to the Nile, and promoted navigation and commerce. His court surpassed all others of the age as a seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, and was illustrated by Theoc'ritus, and other men of genius. During his reign, the celebrated version of the Old Testament into Greek, called the Sep'tuagint, was made for the use of the Jews, many of whom were, at this time, settled in Alexandria.

5. Ptolemy Ever'getes, the son and successor of the preceding monarch, was a warlike and prosperous prince, and likewise a patron of learning. His reign commenced with a severe though successful war with Antivochus, king of Syria. While absent on one of his expeditions, his queen Bereni'ce, alarmed for his safety, made a vow that, if he were restored to her wishes, she would consecrate her hair in the temple of

Veaus.

6. The hair was regarded as the chief ornament of Egyptian ladies; that of Bereni'ce was particularly beautiful, and the sacrifice acquired additional value, as it was a monument of her affection for her husband. By some accident, the consecrated locks were soon lost, and the keepers were rescued from punishment by the address of the astronomer Conon, who affirmed that Bereni'ce's hair had been translated to the firmament, and formed a constellation in the heavens.

7. Ptolemy Ever'getes was succeeded by his son *Ptolemy Philop'ator*, whose character was cruel and sanguinary, and whose reign was distinguished for an unrelenting persecution of the Jews. When he was at Jerusalem, he attempted to penetrate by force into the most holy place of the Jewish temple, into which none but the high priest, and he only once a year, was permitted to enter. Being forcibly prevented from committing this sacrilege, he returned to Egypt, frantic with rage, and resolved to wreak his vengeance on the Jewish people, who had enjoyed many indulgences under his predecessors.

8. He published a decree requiring all the Jews within his dominions to abjure their religion, and worship the gods of Egypt; but only about 900 were so base as to apostatize. He then commanded all the Jews in Alexandria to assemble in the Hip'podrome, or place of public diversion, where he collected 500 elephants for the destruction of this devoted people. But the enraged animals rushed upon the crowd of spectators, and crushed more of them to death than of the Jews; yet about 40,000 of the latter are said to have been slain in the city.

9. The reigns of the first three Ptolemies, which comprised about a century, formed far the most prosperous part of the dynasty. Most of the other reigns were unhappy, abounding

in crimes and calamities.

10. The Egyptian kings of the name of Ptolemy were most of them distinguished by a surname, by which they were in some manner characterized: 1st, Ptolemy Soter, or Savior, so named by the Rhodians, in graitude for the protection which he afforded them: 2d, Ptolemy Philadel phus, or Lover of his Brother, so called, in derision, because he caused his two brothers to be put to death: 3d, Ptolemy Everyetes, or Benefactor, so styled because he restored to Egypt the idols which had been carried away by Camby'ses: 4th, Ptolemy Philop'utor, or Lover of his Father, so named, in derision, because he was supposed to have put his father to death: 5th,

Ptolemy Epiph'anes, or Illustrious, so styled, though his reign was weak and inglorious: 6th, Ptolemy Philome'ter, or Lover of his Mother, so called, in derision, on account of his hatred of his mother: 7th, Ptolemy Physcon, or Big-bellied, so named from his deformity: 8th, Ptolemy Lath'yrus, or Chick-pea, so called from an excrescence on his nose like a pea: 9th, Ptolemy Aule'tes, or Flute-player.

11. The last was Ptolemy Dionysius, who succeeded to the throne at the age of 13 years. He had for his queen his sister, the celebrated Cleopu'tra, who, having caused him to be murdered, assumed the sole government. Her history is connected with that of Julius Casar and Mark Antony. She finally caused herself to be bitten by an asp, in order to avoid being led captive to Rome, to grace the triumph of Octavius. After her death, Egypt became a Roman province, 30 B. C.

12. The queens of the Ptolemies were, according to the usage of the country, for the most part, their sisters; and their names were Arsin'oë, Bereni'ce, and Cleopa'tra. Several of them were women distinguished for their talents and accomplishments.

THE PTOLEMIES, KINGS OF EGYPT.

[The figures denote the commencement of the reign of each.]

B.C.	· ·
323.	Ptolemy Lagus.
263.	Ptolemy Philadelphus
24 6.	Ptolemy Evergetes.
	Ptolemy Philopator.
204.	Ptolemy Epiphanes.
180.	Ptolemy Philometer.
145.	Ptolemy Physcon.
117.	Ptolemy Lathyrus.

80.	Ptolemy Alexander II.
65.	Ptolemy Auletes.
	Berenice.
51	Ptolomer and Clooneter

48. Cleopatra II.; the lust sovereign, died 30 B. C.

101. Ptolemy Alexander.81. Cleopatra.

ROME.

SECTION I.

Roman History: Foundation of Rome: Romulus: Numa Tullus Hostilius: Ancus Martius: Tarquinius Priscus: Servius Tullius: Tarquinius Superbus,—expelled, and the regal government abolished.—From B. C. 753 to 509.

1. In the delineation of ancient history, Rome, the last of the four great empires of antiquity, becomes, after the conquest of Greece, the leading object of attention. It rose gradually from small beginnings to almost universal empire, surpassing, in the extent of its dominions, in military power, and in the stability and strength of its government, all the great sovereignties that had preceded it. Its history is fruitful in great events and illustrious personages; and from it statesmen and philosophers, of different periods and countries, have drawn facts to support their respective speculations and theories. The history of this empire, in its progress and decline, involves a collateral account of all other nations of antiquity, which, in those periods, are particularly deserving of attention.

2. During the reign of the kings, and the early years of the republic, the Roman territories extended only about 15 or 20 miles around the capital; and, for about 400 years after the foundation of the city, the commonwealth was of very limited extent. It then made a rapid progress towards universal dominion; and, about 50 years before the Christian era, it had reduced to its authority almost all the civilized world. This universal empire continued till the 5th century, when it began to be broken; and, towards the end of that century, the Western Empire became extinct. The Eastern Empire subsisted till about the middle of the 15th century, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

3. The early history of the Romans, like that of other ancient nations, is mixed with fable, and what has been extensively received as an authentic account of the early ages, is far from being entitled to full credit. That a considerable mixture of fiction must be blended with the history of the first three or four centuries, will appear more than probable when we consider, that the earliest writer on Roman affairs, whose works are extant, flourished nearly 600 years after the foundation of

the city, that the Romans were not a literary people till the time of the conquest of Greece; that, according to their writers, the records and monuments of their early history were destroyed when the city was barnt by the Gauls, B. C. 390; and that many of the narratives, relating to the early times, have much more the air of fable than of credible history.

4. The length of time comprised in the reigns of the seven kings of Rome, has been regarded as a circumstance calculated to throw a veil of doubt over the accuracy of the account given of them. Of these kings, three or four died a violent death, and one was expelled; yet the average length of their reigns was about 35 years, nearly twice as great as the common

average length of reigns.

5. It may be remarked, with regard to those Roman Histories which treat copiously of the early ages, that although this portion of them may contain much that is true, yet the evidence on which it rests is too slender to command implicit belief with respect to such narratives or statements as are in themselves highly improbable. We can, by no means, place the account of Romaius and that of Julius Casar on the same footing with regard to authentic narrative.

6. According to the poets, Æne'as, a Trojan prince, who escaped from the burning of Troy, after a variety of adventures, arrived in Italy, where he was hospitably received by Lati'nus, king of the Latins, whose daughter he married, and whom he succeeded in the throne. The succession is said to have continued in his family nearly 400 years, till the time of

Nu'mitor, the 15th king in a direct line from Æne'as.

7. Rhea Sylvia, the daughter of Nu'mitor, was the mother of the twin brothers, Rom'ulus and Remus. The two brothers founded a city; but, having quarrelled with each other for the sovereignty, Rom'ulus slew Remus, and proceeded with the building of the city, which he called, from his own name, Rome. He was elected king, made the new city an asylum for fugitives, and, by stratagem, at a public festival, his subjects seized and carried off the Sabine women for wives.

8. Rom'ulus is said to have divided his people into three tribes, each tribe consisting of 10 curiæ; and into two orders, patricians and plebe'ians. He instituted a senate of 100 members, afterwards increased to 200. These were at first always chosen from the patricians, but the plebeians afterwards acquired an equal right to that dignity. In order to attach the two classes, patricians and plebeians, to each other, by mutual bends, he established the connection of patron and client.

Each plebeian had the right of choosing a patrician for his patron, whose duty it was to protect him from oppression, an who received from his client certain services.

9. The king was attended by 12 lictors, with fasces, and had a guard of 300 horsemen, called celleres, equites, or

knights.

10. Numa Pompil'ius, a Sabine, was elected the second king of Rome. He was a native of the town of Cures, whose inhabitants were styled Quiri'tes, a term afterwards applied to Roman citizens. Numa is represented as studious, virtuous, and pacific; and the Romans are said to have received great benefits from his government. He softened their fierce and warlike dispositions, by cherishing the arts of peace, obedience to the laws, and respect for religion. He built the temple of Janus, which was open during war, and closed during peace.

11. Tullus Hostil'ius, the third king of Rome, was of a warlike disposition. His reign is memorable for the romantic story of the combat between the Hora'tii and Curia'tii, who were six in number, sons of two sisters, three at a birth The Horatii fought for Rome, and the Curiatii for Alba. One of the Horatii survived, all the rest being slain; and, by

this victory, the Romans became masters of Alba.

12. Ancus Mar'tius, the fourth king, was the grandson of Numa. He conquered the Latins, and built the port of Os'tia,

at the mouth of the Tiber.

13. Tarquin'ius Priscus, or Tarquin the Elder, the son of a merchant from Cor'inth, was elected successor of Ancus Martius. He embellished the city with works of utility and magnificence, built the walls of hewn stone, erected the circus, or hip'podrome, founded the Capitol, and constructed the cloa'ca, those immense common sewers, or aqueducts, which conveyed into the Tiber the rubbish and superfluous waters of the city.

14. Scr'vius Tul'lius, the son of a captive semale slave, and son-in-law of Tarquin, secured his election to the vacant throne by his own address and the intrigues of his mother-in-law. He established the census, by which, at the end of every fifth year, the number of citizens, their dwellings, number of children, and amount of property, were ascertained. The census was closed by a lustrum, or expiatory sacrifice; hence the period of five years was called a lustrum.

15. Servius had two daughters, of whom the elder was gentle and submissive, and the younger haughty and ambitious. In order to secure the throne, he married them to the two sons

of Tarquin, the late king, whose names were Tarquin and Aruns, and whose different dispositions corresponded to those of his daughters. But he took care to cross their tempers by giving the elder to Tarquin, who was violent, and the younger, Tulia, to Aruns, who was mild, hoping they would correct each other's defects. But Tarquin and Tul'lia soon murdered their consorts, married each other, and then caused Servius to be assassinated. Tarquin usurped the throne, and Tullia, in her aggerness to salute him as king, is said to have driven her chariot over the dead body of her father.

16. Tarquin, surnamed the Proud, (in Latin, Tarquin'ius Super'bis), began his reign by putting to death the chief senators, and governing in the most arbitrary manner; but, by his tyranny and cruelty, he soon disgusted all classes of his subjects. Sextus, his son, having entered the house of Collati'nus, a nephew of Tarquin, under the mask of friendship, did violence to his wife Lucre'tia, a woman distinguished for her beauty and domestic virtues. The unhappy Lucretia immediately sent for her husband and father, who came, bringing with them Jun'ius Bru'tus, a grandson of Tarquin the Elder, and other friends. To them she related her mournful story, enjoining upon them to avenge her injury; and, being unable to survive her dishonor, plunged a dagger into her bosom, and expired.

17. Her corpse was carried to the public square; the vengeance of the people was roused; and, by the strenuous exertions of Brutus, the senate pronounced a sentence of perpetual banishment against Tarquin and his family. The tyrant, being expelled from his capital, and abandoned by his army, was never able to gain a readmission into the city; and the regal government was abolished, after having continued 244

years.

SECTION II.

The Commonwealth: Consuls, Collatinus and Brutus: Vale rius: Portena: Dictator: The Plebeians encamp on Mons Sacer: Tribunes: Coriolanus: Law of Volero. Cincinnatus: The Twelve Tables: Decemvirs: Appius Claudius.—From B. C. 509 to 449.

1. The regal authority being abolished, a republican form of government was established in its stead. The supreme

power, as heretofore, belonged to the senate and people; hut, instead of a regent for life, two consuls were chosen annualty. from the patrician families, as presidents of the republic, and chief directors of affairs. Their power was nearly the same as that of the kings, except that it was limited to one year-The first consuls were Bru'tus and Collati'nus, who had taken so distinguished a part in the expulsion of the tyrants.

2. Tarquin was now in Etruria, where he prevailed upon two of the most powerful cities, Ve'ii and Tarquin'ii, to espouse his cause. He had also numerous partisans in Rome, particularly among the young patricians, who preferred the luxuries and spiendor of a royal court to the simplicity and austerity of a republic. A plot was formed to open the gates to receive him, and, upon its being discovered, Brutus had the mortification to find his two sons among the conspirators. They were brought to trial before himself; he condemned them to be beheaded in his presence, and witnessed the shocking spectacle with a steady look and an unaltered countenance. "He ceased to be a father," says an ancient author, "that he might execute the duties of a consul, and chose to live childless rather than to neglect the public punishment of a crime."

3. The insurrection in the city being suppressed, Tarquin relied wholly upon external aid, and raised an army in order to regain the crown; but he was defeated by the Romans under the command of the consuls Vale'rius, (who was elected in place of Collatinus,) and Brutus. In this battle Brutus was killed, and the Roman matrons honored his memory by wearing mourning for him a whole year. Vale'rius, after the victory, returned to the city, and was the first Roman who

enjoyed the splendid reward of a triumph.

4. Vale rius having become arrogant from the honors which he had received, his popularity began to decline; and, with a view to recover it, he proposed a law, termed, from him, the Valerian law, which granted to a citizen, condemned by a magistrate, the right of appealing to the people. This gave the first blow to the aristocracy in the Roman republic.

5. For 13 years after the expulsion of Tarquin, the Romans were involved in continual hostilities on his account. Of these the most remarkable was the war with the Etrurians, under their king Porsen'na; a war fertile in exploits of romantic heroism, and signalized by the daring intrepidity of Horatius Co'cles, who alone arrested the progress of the enemy at the head of a bridge, and of Mutius Scav'ola, who entered the enemy's camp, in disguise, with a design to assassinate Porsenna; but hostilities were finally terminated by an amicalle

arrangement between the two parties.

6. Dangers from domestic disorders were soon added to those of war. Tarquin had induced the Latins to enlist in his cause, and approached the city with his army. The pleberans, being poor and oppressed with debt, complained of their grievances, and refused to aid in repelling the enemy, unless the senate would grant them relief, by remitting their debts to the rich. The consuls found their authority of no avail; as the Valerian law gave to any condemned citizen the

right of appealing to the people.

- 7. An extraordinary measure was now necessary; and a new magistrate was created, styled dictator, who was to continue in office only as long as the danger of the state required, never exceeding the space of six months, and was vested with absolute power. He was appointed only in cases of public exigency, when quick and decisive measures were necessary. He had authority to make peace and war, to levy taxes, to appoint all public officers, and to dispense with the laws, without consulting the senate or people. Titus Lartius one of the consuls, being elevated to this high office, raised a large army, and, by his firmness and moderation, having restored tranquillity, resigned the dictatorship. War having been again excited by the Tarquins, Pothu'mius was appointed dictator; the Romans were completely victorious, and the sons of Tarquin were slain.
- 8. After the death of the *Tarquins*, and the return of peace, Rome was disturbed by domestic dissensions, and the dispute between the creditors and debtors was again revived. On an alarm of war, the plebeians refused to take up arms in defence of the republic. Their language was, "Of what consequence is it to us whether our chains are forged by our enemies or our fellow-citizens. Let the patricians, since they alone have the reward of victories, encounter the dangers of war." At length, finding no relief from their oppressions, the whole army abandoned their officers, withdrew from Rome, and encar ped upon *Mons Sacer*, about three miles from the city. Here they were soon joined by the greater part of the people.

9. This resolute procedure had the desired effect. The senate, being alarmed, deputed ten of the most respectable of their order, with authority to grant a redress. *Mene'nius Agrip'pa*, one of the senators, is said to have related, in his speech to the people, with great effect, the celebrated fable of the belly and the members. A reconciliation was brought about.

The debts of the plebeians were abolished, and, for their future security, they were allowed the right of choosing, from their own order, magistrates, styled trib'uncs, who should have the power of annulling, by a single veto, every measure which they should judge prejudicial to their interest. The tribunes were elected annually; their number at first was five; afterwards increased to ten. By them the aristocracy was held within bounds, and the fury of the populace was regulated. Two magistrates, styled æ'diles, were appointed to assist the tribunes, and to take charge of the public buildings.

10. The neglect of agriculture, which had arisen from the revolt of the army, brought on a famine, which caused great commotion; but the arrival of a large quantity of corn from Sicily produced a temporary relief. At this time, the resentment of the people was strongly excited against Coriola'nus, who was a man of aristocratic principles, of talents and courage, and who had distinguished himself in a war against the Volsci. He advised that no corn should be distributed to the people, unless they would restore the rights of the senate, and abolish the office of the tribunes. In consequence of the resentment which these proposals excited, the tribunes brought charges against him, and he was sentenced by the people to perpetual banishment. He then went over to the Volsci, who appointed him their commander; and he led their army against Rome, which was, for a time, threatened with ruin; but he was at last persuaded, by the earnest entreaties of his mother and his wife, to lay down his arms.

11. The proposal of an Agrarian law for dividing among the people the lands which were obtained by conquest, and which were the joint property of all the citizens, proved an apple of discord thrown out between the rich and the poor. Such a division of the public lands was demanded by the plebeians, but it was strenuously opposed by the patricians. The design was repeatedly brought forward before any such

law was enacted, and caused violent dissensions.

12. By the influence of the tribune Vol'ero, a law was enacted that the election of tribunes should be made, and the chief public business discussed, in the comitia, or public meetings held by tribes; and not, as before, by the centuries and curiæ. By this law, the supreme authority was taken from the patricians and placed in the hands of the plebeians, and the Roman government became a democracy.

13. Dissensions arising on account of the proposed Agrarun law, and dangers from the invasions of the Æqui and Volsci, Cincinna'tus was twice called from the plough to as sume the government as dictator. Having completely van quished the enemies of his country, and entered the city in a splendid triumph, he resigned his office, and returned again to

his retirement, to labor upon his farm.

14. The Romans had hitherto possessed no body of written laws. Under the regal government, the kings administered justice; and the consuls succeeded them in the exercise of this high authority. But their arbitrary proceedings were frequently the subject of complaint, and the citizens became desirous of having a fixed code of laws for the security of their rights. Three commissioners were, therefore, sent to Greece, in order to procure the laws of Solon, and such others as were deemed useful in forming a suitable code.

15. Upon the return of the commissioners, ten of the principal senators, styled decem'virs, were appointed to digest a body of laws, and put them in execution for one year. This was the origin of those celebrated statutes known by the name of the Laws of the Twelve Tables, which formed the basis of Roman jurisprudence, and continued to be of the highest

authority in the most flourishing times of the republic.

16. The decemvirs were invested with absolute power; and during the time for which they were appointed, all other magistrates were suspended. Each decemvir, by turn, presided for a day, and had the sovereign authority, with its insignia and fasces. They governed with so much moderation and equity during the first year, that they obtained a new appointment; but they soon became tyrannical; and two flagrant abuses of power by Ap'pius Clau'dius, the leading member of their body,

caused a speedy termination of the office.

17. One of these crimes was his procuring the assassination of Sicin'ius Denta'tus, a Roman tribune, who, on account of his extraordinary valor and exploits, was styled the Roman Achil'les; the other was his villany with regard to Virginia, a beautiful young maiden, who had been betrothed to Icil'ius, formerly a tribune. Having seen her as she was going to a public school, and being inflamed with a lawless passion, he employed a profligate dependent to claim her as his own property, on the pretence of her being the daughter of one of his female slaves.

18. He caused the claim to be brought for trial before himself, and pronounced an infamous decree, by which the innocent victim was torn from her parents, and placed within his own power *Virginius*, her father, in order to prevent the

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dishonor of his daughter, plunged a dagger into her heart Brandishing in his hand the bloody weapon, he exclaimed "By this blood, Appius, I devote thy head to the infernal gods," and running wildly through the city, he roused the people to vengeance. Appius soon after died in prison by his own hand; the other decemvirs went into exile; the decemvirate, after having continued for three years, was abolished; and the consuls were restored.

SECTION III.

Military Tribunes: Censors: Veil destroyed: Camillus: Rome burnt by the Gauls: Brennus: Manlius: The Samnites: Pyrrhus: Conquest of Italy.—From B. C. 449 to 266.

1. The two great barriers which still separated the patricians and plebeians, were the prohibition of their intermarriage, and the limitation of the office of consul to the patricians. After a long contest, the law prohibiting intermarriages was repealed, with the hope that this concession would satisfy the people. But this success, on the contrary, stimulated them to urge their claim to be admitted to a share in the consulship; and on the occurrence of war, they had recourse to their former custom of refusing to enlist, unless their demand was granted.

2. After a long contest, it was agreed on both sides, that, instead of consuls, six military tribunes, with the power of consuls, should be chosen, three of them from the patricians, and three from the plebeians. This institution, however, was, in a short time, laid aside; and the consuls were again restor-

ed to office.

3. The disorders of the republic prevented the survey, or enumeration, of the citizens from being regularly attended to. In order to remedy this neglect, two officers, styled censors, were appointed; and it was made their duty not only to take the census every five years, but also to inspect the morals and regulate the duties of all the citizens. This was an office of great dignity and importance, exercised for 100 years by patricians; in the later times of the republic, only by consular persons; and afterwards by the emperors.

4. In order to avoid the evils which arose from the people's frequently refusing to enlist in the army, the senate introduced

the practice of giving regular pay to the troops. From this period, the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its success more signal and important. The art of war was improved, as it now became a profession, instead of an occasional employment. The Roman dominion, hitherto confined to a territory of a few miles, soon began to be rapidly extended.

5. The inhabitants of the city of Ve'ii, long the proud rival of Rome, equal in extent and population, had repeatedly made depredations on the Roman territories; and it was decreed that Ve'ii, whatever it might cost, should be destroyed. A siege was begun, which was continued, with great exertion and various success, for ten years. At length, in order to carry it on with greater vigor, Camillus was created dictator; and to him was intrusted the sole management of the long

protracted war.

6. He caused a passage to be opened under ground into the citadel, by means of which he filled the city with his legions, who plundered and destroyed it. Camillus was honored with a splendid triumph, in which he was drawn in a chariot by four white horses; but being afterwards accused of having appropriated to his own use a part of the plunder of Ve'ii, indignant at the ingratitude of his countrymen, he went

into voluntary exile.

7. The Gauls, a barbarous and warlike people, had long before this opened a passage through the Alps, and had settled themselves in the northern part of Italy. Under the command of their king Brennus, they laid siege to Clu'sium, a city of Etruria, the inhabitants of which implored the assistance of the Romans. The senate sent three patricians of the Fabian family on an embassy to Brennus, to inquire what offence the citizens of Clu'sium had given him. To this he sternly replied, that "the right of valiant men lay in their swords; that the Romans themselves had no other right to the cities they had conquered." The ambassadors, having obtained leave, entered Clu'sium, and assisted the inhabitants against the assailants. This so incensed Brennus, that he raised the siege, marched directly towards Rome, and in a great battle near the rivulet Allia, he defeated the Roman army with great slaughter.

8. The Gauls then entered Rome, and after a general mas-

sacre of such of the inhabitants as remained in it, and a pillage of the city, they burnt it to ashes, and razed the walls to the

ground. They next besieged the capitol; but the Romans repelled their attacks with great bravery. At length, having discovered footsteps leading up to the top of the Tarpe'ian rock, a body of Gauls undertook the difficult enterprise of gaining the summit in the night; which they accomplished while the Roman sentinel was asleep. At this moment, the cackling of some geese in the temple of Juno, is said to have awakened Marius Man'lius, with his associates, who instantly threw the Gauls headlong down the precipice.

9. From this time, the hopes of the Gauls began to decline, and they soon after agreed to quit the city on condition of receiving 1000 pounds weight of gold; but, after the gold was brought, the Gauls weighed with false weights, and the complaints which the Romans made of the deception, were treated with insolence. At this juncture, Camillus, who had recently been restored to favor, and again appointed dictator, appeared at the gates with an army. Having been informed of the deception and insolence of the Gauls, he ordered the gold to be carried back into the capitol, commanded the Gauls to retire; adding that "Rome must be ransomed by steel, and not by gold." Upon this a battle ensued, in which the Gauls were entirely routed, and Camillus was honored as the father of his country and the second founder of Rome. The city, being freed from its invaders, soon began to rise again from its ashes.

10. Man'lius was liberally rewarded for his heroism; but at length, envying the fame of Camillus, he abandoned himself to ambitious views; and being accused of aiming at sovereign power, he was sentenced to be thrown headlong from the *Tarpeian rock*. Thus the place, which had been the theatre of his

glory, became that of his punishment and infamy.

11. The Romans next turned their arms against the Samnites, a race of hardy mountaineers, inhabiting an extensive tract in the southern part of Italy. This contest lasted upwards of 50 years, and was carried on by the Samnites with great valor and skill, though they were finally subdued They defeated the Romans at Caudinæ Furculæ, near Caudium, and made their whole army pass under the yoke, formed by two spears set upright, and a third bound across them. This roused the spirit of revenge on the part of the Romans, who appointed Papir'ius Cursor dictator; and the next year, under his command, they gained a victory over the Samnites, compelling them, in turn, to undergo the same disgrace at Luce'ria; and by the exertions of Fabius Maximus and Decius, they were finally seibjugated.

12. During the consulship of Manlius Torquatus, a war broke out between the Romans and Latins. In order to prevent confusion in time of action by reason of the similarity of the two nations, Manlius issued orders that death should be inflicted on any one who should leave his ranks. When the two armies were drawn out for battle, Metius, a Latin commander, challenged to single combat any Roman knight. Titus Mankius, the son of the consul, accepted the challenge, and slew his adversary; and for this act he was beheaded by the stern order of his father. The Latins were vanquished, and submitted to the Romans.

13. The Tarentines, who were the allies of the Samnites, sought the aid of Pyr'rhus, king of Epi'rus, the greatest general of his age. He landed at Taren'tum with an army of 30,000 men, and twenty elephants; and the Romans, under the command of the consul Lævi'nus, not being accustomed to the mode of fighting with elephants, were at first defeated, with the loss of 15,000 men; that of Pyrrhus was nearly as great; and he was heard to confess that another such victory would compel him to return to Epirus. His admiration of the heromorphism of his tenemy drew from him the celebrated exclamation; "O, with what ease could I conquer the world, had I the Romans for soldiers, or had they me for their king!"

14. In the progress of the war, Fabri'cius, who afterwards commanded the Roman army, received a letter from the physician of Pyr'rhus, importing that for a proper reward he would poison the king. Fabri'cius, indignant at so base a proposal, gave immediate information of it to Pyr'rhus, who, admiring the generosity of his enemy, exclaimed; "It is easier to turn the sun from his course, than Fabricius from the path of honor:"—and that he might not be outdone in magnanimity, he released all his Roman prisoners without

ransom.

15. Pyrrhus then withdrew his army from Italy, in order to assist the Sicilians against the Carthaginians; but he again returned, and made a last effort near Beneven'tum, where he was totally defeated by Cu'rius Denta'tus. He then withdrew to his own dominions, and the Romans, after having gained further victories over the Samnites, became masters of all Lower Italy.

SECTION IV.

Carthage : Sicily.

- 1. As the history of Rome now becomes connected with that of Car'thage and Siç'ily, it may be proper to introduce here a short notice of those states.
- 2. Carthage is said to have been founded, nearly 900 years before the Christian era, by Dido, with a colony of Tyrians. The government, at first monarchical, became afterwards republican, and it is commended by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of antiquity. The two chief magistrates, called suffectes, or judges, were elected annually from the first families. The religion was a cruel superstition, and human victims were offered in sacrifice.
- 3. In the time of the Punic wars, Carthage was the most commercial and wealthy city, and one of the most splendid in the world. It had under its dominion about 300 smaller towns in Africa, bordering on the Mediterranean, a great part of Spain, also of Sicily, and other islands. The Carthaginians worked the gold mines of Spain; they were devoted to commerce, and had the vices and characteristics of a commercial people. The Romans, who were their rivals and enemies, represented them as wanting in integrity and honor; hence the ironical phrase, Pu'nica fides [Punic faith], to denote treachery.
- 4. History records the names of few persons among the Carthaginians, eminent as philosophers, or distinguished in the arts. The *Per'iplus*, or voyage of *Hanno*, an illustrious Carthaginian, who wrote an account of his expedition, affords proof of ardent enterprise. Carthage produced several celebrated generals, among whom were *Hamil'car*, *As'drubal*, and *Hannibal*: the last was the most formidable enemy that Rome
- ever experienced.
- 5. The Phænicians sent colonies to Sicily before the Tro jan war, and the Greeks, at later periods, made settlements on the island. Sicily contained many large and opulent cities; of these, Syr'acuse, founded by the Corinthians, was the most populous and commercial, and larger than any of the cities of Greece. It was governed, in its early ages, like most of the other cities of Sicily, by a democracy, but at length it fell into the power of an individual.

6. To Ge'lon, one of its sovereigns, history ascribes every virtue but his successors being cruel tyrants, the people took

measures to rid themselves of the regal government. It was, however, after 60 years, again restored in the person of Dionys'ius, a man of great talents; but he found it easier to acquire royalty than to preserve and enjoy it. His son, Dionysius the Younger, a weak and capricious tyrant, was dethroned by the aid of Timo'leon, an illustrious Corinthian, and exiled to Corinth, where he died in poverty.

SECTION V.

First Punic War; Regulus: Second Punic War; Hannibal: Conquest of Macedonia: Third Punic War; Carthage destroyed: Conquest of Greece.—From B. C. 264 to 133.

1. The Romans, having become masters of all Lower Italy, were eager to extend their conquests into foreign countries. They had hitherto made no naval conquests, and possessed no fleet. Carthage was now their most formidable rival, and the greatest maritime power in the world, possessing an extensive sway over all the commercial towns of the Mediterranean. The Carthaginians were rich in merchandise, in silver, and gold: the Romans were comparatively poor, but preëminent in patriotism and valor, and ambitious of conquest.

2. The Mamertines, a people of Campa'nia, obtained assistance of the Romans in a war with Hi'ero, tyrant of Syr'acuse. The Syracusans being at first assisted by the Carthaginians, a war was brought on between the latter and the Romans, styled the first Punic War. The object, at first, of both parties, was merely to obtain possession of Messa'na, in order to command the passage of the straits, which took their name from that city; but it soon became a contest for the sovereign-

ty of the whole island, and the dominion of the seas.

3. The Romans now earnestly applied themselves to maritime affairs. A Carthaginian vessel, which happened, in a storm, to be driven ashore, served as a model; and within' two months, a fleet, consisting of upwards of 100 vessels, of a rude construction, was prepared, of which the command was given to the consul Duil'lius, who defeated the Carthaginians, and took 50 of their vessels. Soon after the commencement of the war, the Syracusans, changing their course, joined the Romans, and Agrigen'tum was taken from the Carthaginians.

4. The Romans increased their naval force to upwards of 300 galleys, and gained another great victory, off the coast of Sicily, over the Carthaginians, who then made an offer of peace; but it was rejected. The consul Reg'ulus, with an army, soon landed on the coast of Africa, defeated the Carthaginians, and appeared before the gates of the capital. Here, being met by the Carthaginians, under the command of Xanthip'pus, a Spartan, he was totally defeated, and taken prisoner. He was afterwards sent with the Carthaginian ambassadors to Rome, in order to procure peace, under an oath to return if the negotiation should fail. Reg'ulus, thinking the terms not advantageous to his country, strenuously opposed their being accepted, and returned to Carthage, where he was put to death with the most cruel tortures.

5. The war continued to rage in Sicily with various success; but the Romans finally prevailed, and the Carthaginians were compelled to accept of humiliating terms of peace. They agreed to abandon Sicily, to pay the Romans 3,200 talents, and release their captives. Sicily was now declared a Roman province, but Syr'acuse still maintained its independent government. After the close of this war, the Romans

made a conquest of Cisal pine Gaul.

6. The peace between the Romans and Carthaginians lasted 23 years; and during a part of this period, the temple of Janus was shut for the first time since the reign of Numa.

7. The most distinguished Carthaginian commander in the first Punic war was Hamil'car, who was the father of Han' nibal, and who trained his son to war, and made him swear, when very young, a perpetual enmity to the Roman name. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals of antiquity, and at the early age of 26 years, was raised to the chief command of the Carthaginian army. He commenced the second Punic War by besieging Saguntum, a city of Spain in alliance with the Romans. After a siege of seven months, the desperate inhabitants set fire to the city, and perished in the flames.

8. Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy, and by an arduous and toilsome march, he led his army over the Pyr'enees, and afterwards over the Alps, and gained four great victories,—the first over Scip'iv, near the Tici'nus; the second over Sempro'nius, near the Tre'bia; the third over Flamin'ius, near lake Thrasyme'nus; and the fourth over Æmil'ius and Varro, at Cannæ. The last was the most memorable defeat that the Romans ever suffered. Upwards

40,000 of their troops were left dead on the field, together with the consul Æmilius. Among the slain were 5,000 or 1,000 Roman knights, the greater part of the whole body; and Hannibal is said to have sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings, which they wore on their fingers.

9. Rannibal has been censured for not making the best use of the great victory by immediately attacking Rome, and, instead of doing this, for leading his troops into winter-quarters, at Cap'ua, where they were corrupted and enervated by dissi-

pation in that luxurious city.

16. The Romans, being now guided by the counsels of the sagacious and prudent Fabius Maximus, concentrated their strength. The chief command of their armies was given to Fa'bius, styled the Shield, and to Marcel'lus, the Sword of The good fortune of Hannibal now forsook him; and he remained 13 years in Italy, after the battle of Cannæ, without gaining any signal advantage. At the siege of Nola he was repulsed by Marcellus with considerable loss, and his army was harassed and weakened by Fabius.

11. Syr'acuse, which had taken part with Carthage, was besieged by Marcellus, and after being defended for three years by the inventive genius of the celebrated mathematician Archime'des, it was at last compelled to surrender. This event put an end to the kingdom of Syr'acuse, which now became a part of the Roman province of Sicily. A large army of Carthaginians was sent from Spain into Italy under the command of As' drubal, the brother of Hannibal, who was defeated with great slaughter by the Romans, under the command of the

consuls Livy and Nero, near Metau'rus.

12. Scip'io the Younger, afterwards surnamed Africa'nus, having conquered Spain, passed over into Africa, with a Roman army, and carried havoc and devastation to the walls of Carthage. Alarmed for the fate of their empire, the Carthaginians immediately recalled Hannibal from Italy. These two great commanders, Hannibal and Scipio, at the head of their respective armies, fought on the plains of Zama a mem-orable battle, in which the Carthaginians were totally defeated. \ A peace soon followed, the conditions of which were, that Carthage should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the other islands in the Mediterranean, surrender all their prisoners, give up their whole fleet, except ten galleys, and, in fature, undertake no war without the consent of the Romans. / Thus terminated the second Punic war, in the humiliation of Carthage, after having continued for 17 years.

- 13. Hannibal afterwards fled from his country, and passes the last 13 years of his life in Syria and Bithynia. During his exile. Scipio resided a while in the same country, and many friendly conversations passed between them; in one of which the Roman is said to have asked the Carthaginian "Whom he thought the greatest general." Hannibal in mediately replied, "Alexander, because that, with a small bely of men, he had defeated very numerous armies, and had overrun a great part of the world." "And who do you think deserves the next place?" continued the Roman. "Pyrrhus," replied the other: "he first taught the method of forming a camp to the best advantage. Nobody knew better low to choose, or post guards more properly." "And whom do you place next to those?" said Scipio. "Myself," said Hannibal; at which Scipio asked, with a smile, "Where then would you have placed yourself, if you had conquered me?" "Above Alexander," replied the Carthaginian, "above Pyrrhus, and above all other generals."
- 14 While engaged in hostilities with the Carthaginians, the Romans prosecuted the first Macedonian War, which terminated in the defeat of king Philip, in the battle of Cynoceph'a-le. Not long afterwards, a Roman army, under Scip'io, surnamed Asiat'icus, invaded Syria, and in the battle of Magnesia, defeated Anti'ochus the Great. The second Macedonian War followed, which terminated in the defeat of Perseus, the last king of that country, in the battle of Pydna, and the reduction of Macedonia to a Roman province.
- 15. About 50 years after the conclusion of the second Punic war, the Carthaginians attempted to repel the Numidians, who made incursions into a territory claimed by the former. The Romans, pretending this was a violation of their treaty, laid hold of it as a pretext for commencing the third Punic War, with a determination to effect the entire destruction of Carthage. Pur'cius Cuto, the censor, who now swayed the cisions of the senate, had long cherished this savage design, and had been in the habit of concluding his speeches with this expression; Delenda est Carthago, "Carthage must be destroyed."
 - 16. The Carthaginians, conscious of their inability to resist the Romans, offered every submission, and were ready even to acknowledge themselves subjects of Rome. They yielded up to the demand of the Romans, their ships, their arms, and

munitions of war. They were then required to abandon he city, in order that it might be destroyed. This demand was heard by the inhabitants with a mixed feeling of indignation and despair; but the spirit of liberty and independence not being yet extinct, they were roused to make the most strenuous efforts, having resolved to sacrifice their lives rather than to obey the barbarous mandate.

17. After the most desperate resistance for three years, the city was at last taken by Scip'io, the second Africanus, and being set on fire, the flames continued to rage during 17 days. Thus was Carthage, with its walls and buildings, the habitations of 700,000 people, razed to its foundations. Such of the inhabitants as disdained to surrender themselves prisoners of war, were either massacred, or perished in the flames. The scenes of horror were such as to force tears even from the Roman general.

18. The year in which this barbarous transaction took place, was signalized by the taking of *Cor'inth*, and the reduction of *Greece* to a Roman province. And a few years afterwards, *Numan'tia*, in Spain, after a tremendous siege, fell

into the hands of the Romans.

SECTION VI.

The Gracchi: Jugurtha: Social War: Mithridates: Marsus and Sylla: Servile War: Conspiracy of Catiline.—From B. C. 133 to 63.

1. The Romans had hitherto been characterized by temperance, severity of manners, military enterprise, and public spirit; but they were not as yet a literary people, and the arts and sciences had been but little cultivated by them. These were now introduced from Greece; and the period of the subjugation of that country is the era of the dawn of taste and literature in Rome. Acquaintance with foreign nations, and the introduction of foreign wealth, began also, at this period, to introduce luxury and corruption of manners.

2. The power of Rome was now widely extended; her arms had been every where triumphant; and by the destruction of Carthage, she was freed from the fear of a rival. But when there was no longer a foreign object to excite apprehension, she began to be torn by domestic dissensions, which con-

tinued, in various forms, to distract the state, till the final dissolution of the commonwealth.

3. Tibe'rius and Ca'ius Grac'chus, men of eloquence and influence, distinguished themselves by asserting the claims of the people. Tiberius, the elder of the two brothers, being a tribune, attempted to check the power of the patricians, and abridge their overgrown estates, by reviving the Licinian law, which ordained that no citizen should possess more than 500 acres of the public lands. A tumult was the consequence, in which Tiberius, together with 300 of his friends, was killed in the forum by the senators.

4. This fatal example did not deter his brother Caius from pursuing a similar career, in endeavoring to maintain, by force, the privileges of the people, against the encroachments of the senate. But like his brother, he fell a victim to the attempt, with 3,000 of his partisans, who were slaughtered in

the streets of Rome by the consul Opim'ius.

5. Jugur'tha, a grandson of Masinis'sa, attempted to usurp the crown of Numid'ia by destroying his cousins, Hiemp'sal and Adher'bal, grandsons also of Masinissa, and sons of the Jeceased king Micip'sa. He murdered the elder, but Adher'bal, the younger, escaping, applied to Rome for aid; but the senate, being bribed by Jugurtha, divided the kingdom between the two. Jugurtha having defeated and slain his cousin, seized the whole kingdom; but he excited against himself the vengeance of the Romans.

6. War being declared against him, the Roman army was at first commanded by *Mctel'lus*: but the celebrated *Ma'rius* having supplanted and succeeded him in command, gained two great victories over Jugurtha, who was taken prisoner, led in chains to Rome, and after having graced the triumph of the conqueror, was confined in a dungeon, where he was starved to death. Marius afterwards led the Roman army against the *Teu'tones* and *Cimbri*, and defeated them with great slaughter.

7. A confederacy of the states of Italy against Rome, to obtain the rights of citizenship, gave rise to the Social War, which continued to rage for several years, and is said to have caused the destruction of about 300,000 men. It was ended by conceding the rights of citizenship to all such as should return to their allegiance.

8. Mithrida'tes, king of Pontus, the most powerful monarch of the East, and one of the greatest generals of the age, formed a design of uniting in a confederacy the eastern and northern nations, and, at the head of their forces, of overrunning Italy.

He began the war by causing about 80,000 Romans, who dwelt in the cities of Asia Minor, to be massacred in one day; and soon after he invaded Greece.—In this celebrated contest, styled the Mithridatic war, the famous Roman generals, Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey, successively bore a distinguished

part.

9. Sylla, a man of great talents and an able general, who had distinguished himself in the late wars, and was now at the head of an army in Campania, was appointed to the chief command in the war against Mithrida tes. He belonged to an illustrious family, and was popular with the senate. But his great rival, Ma'rius, a peasant by birth, was an enemy to the aristocracy, and favorite with the people. He was now 70 years of age, had been distinguished for his warlike genius and exploits for nearly half a century, and had been honored with two triumphs and six consulates. But his ambition was not yet satisfied; and he had the address to get the command

of the army transferred from Sylla to himself.

10. Sylla, on receiving this intelligence, finding his troops devoted to him, led them immediately to Rome, which he entered sword in hand, surrounded the house of the senate, and compelled that body to issue a decree declaring Marius an enemy to his country. Marius, being obliged to flee, made his escape into Africa, and Sylla afterwards entered upon the Mithridatic war. Cinna, a zealous partisan of Marius, collected an army, recalled the veteran warrior, who, after gaining a bloody victory, entered Rome, and gave orders for murdering all the great senators. After a horrible massacre of their enemies, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls, without the formality of an election. But the career of Marius was soon terminated by death, and not long after Cinna was assassinated.

All. Sylla, after having had a victorious campaign in the war against Mithrida'tes, in which he gained great victories, returned to Italy, and entering Rome with his army, caused another horrible massacre, in which his object was to exterminate every enemy he had in Italy. Having obtained the appointment of perpetual dictator, he caused the streets of Rome to flow with the blood of her citizens. To the surprise however, both of his friends and of his enemies, he resigned the dictatorship, before he had completed three years in office, and retired to a villa at Pute'oli, where he spent the rest of his days in the society of licentious persons, and the occasional pursuits of literature. On his death, he was honored with

a magnificent funeral, and a monument with the following epitaph, written by himself:—"I am Sylla the Fortunate, who, in the course of my life, have surpassed both friends and enemies; the former by the good, the latter by the evil I have done them."—In the civil wars carried on between Sylla and Marius, 150,000 Roman citizens were sacrificed, including 200 senators, and 33 men who had been consuls.

12. After the death of Sylla, the old dissensions again broke out between the two parties, supported respectively by the two consuls, Cat'ulus and Lep'idus. The latter favored the party of Marius, and was also supported by Serto'rius, a great general, who was now at the head of an army in Spain, where he established an independent republic, and sustained, with great ability, a war for several years against the Roman state, but was at last murdered by Perpen'na.

13. The commonwealth was now, for two years, harassed by the Servile War, excited by Spartacus, a Thracian shepherd who had been kept at Capua as a gladiator. Escaping from his confinement, he placed himself at the head of an army of slaves, laid waste the country, but was at length totally defeated, with the loss of 40,000 men, by Crassus.

14. A few years after the defeat of Spar'tacus, a conspiracy, threatening the destruction of Rome, was headed by Cat'iline, a man of extraordinary courage and talents but of ruined fortune, and most profligate character. A plan was concerted, that there should be a simultaneous insurrection throughout Italy; that Rome should be fired in different places at once; and that Catiline, at the head of an army, should take possession of the city and massacre all the senators.

15. This sanguinary plot was seasonably detected and crushed by the vigilance and energy of the consul *Cicero*, the great Roman orator. Catiline, at the head of 12,000 men whom he had collected, was defeated and slain, together

with his whole army.

SECTION VII.

First Triumvirate: Civil War of Casar and Pompey Second Triumvirate: Dissolution of the Commonwealth.—From B. C. 60 to 31.

1. Pompey, who, on account of his military exploits, was surnamed the Great, was appointed to the chief command

m conducting the *Mithridatic war*, which he brought to a successful termination. He defeated *Mithridates*, king of Pontus, and *Tigratnes*, king of Armenia, and reduced *Syria*, together with *Judea*, to the state of a Roman province. Returning home, after his splendid campaign, the Romans honored him with a triumph, and gazed, for three successive days, on the spoils of eastern grandeur, which preceded his chariot.

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2. The two most considerable men now in Rome were Pompey and Crassus; the former for his talents, popularity, and military fame, the latter for his enormous wealth, extensive patronage, and great liberality. Julius Casar had, before this time, distinguished himself by his military achievements, and risen into public notice. When a young man, he was exceedingly profligate, and had, at an early age, excited the jealousy of Sylla, who, discerning his great talents and ambition, said of him, that "he saw many a Marius in that dissolute youth." Pompey and Crassus were hostile to each other, both of them contending for the command of the republic. Casar paid court to both, and had the address to unite them. The three formed the design of appropriating to themselves the whole power of the state, and entered into that famous league, known by the name of the First Triumvirate.

3. They distributed the foreign provinces among themselves: Pompey received Spain and Africa, and remained in Rome; Crassus chose Syria, which was the richest; Cæsar took Gaul, and he ratified his treaty with Pompey by giving him his daughter Julia in marriage. Crassus, having made war against the Parthians, who were commanded by Sure'na, was defeated in a battle fought near Carræ, and was afterwards taken and slain, leaving the empire to his two colleagues. 'The bond of union between Cæsar and Pompey had already been dissolved by the recent death of Julia; the two rivals became jealous of each other; each began to mani-

fest hostility, and to aspire to undivided dominion.

4. On the division of the provinces among the triumvirs, Cæsar had proceeded immediately to take possession of Gaul, which was inhabited by many barbarous and warlike nations, most of them yet unconquered. Here he had a most brilliant career of victory, in eight campaigns, which he conducted with extraordinary ability. He contrived to give a color of justice and humanity to his bloody operations, by professing himself the protector of the native inhabitants, against the invasions of the Helvetii and the Germans. He acquired a high military reputation, and great popularity; and rendered

himself the idol of his troops by sharing with them every danger, and by his great liberality, affability, and clemency.

5. Pompey, who had remained all this time in Rome, was starmed on account of the great reputation of his rival, and endeavored to thwart his views. The term of Cæsar's government being about to expire, he applied to the senate to be continued in his authority; but this body, being devoted to Pompey, denied his demand. He now resolved to support his claim by force of arms, and a civil war was the consequence. The consuls and most of the senators were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army devoted to his cause, and the great body of Roman citizens, whom he had won by his liberality.

6. Pompey had been careful to place in the provinces governors devoted to himself; but he had no army, and took no measures to raise one. Cicero, surprised at his negligence in his preparations, asked him with what troops he expected to oppose Cæsar? "I need only stamp my foot on the ground,"

he replied, "and an army will arise."

7. Cæsar, having bound his army to him by an oath of fidelity, led it over the Alps, and stopping at Ravenna, wrote to the Roman government, offering to resign all command, in case Pompey would do the same; but the senate decreed that he should lay down his government and disband his forces. within a limited time, under the penalty of being declared an enemy to the commonwealth. Cæsar marched his army to the banks of the Ru'bicon, a small river separating Italy from Cisalpine Gaul, and forming the limits of his command; and to pass which with an army, or even a single cohort, had been declared by the senate a sacrilege and parricide. On arriving at this famous stream, he is said to have hesitated, impressed with the greatness of the enterprise, and its fearful consequences; and to have said to Pollio, one of his generals, " If I pass this river, what miseries I shall bring on my country! and if I do not pass it, I am undone." Soon after, he exclaimed, "The die is cast;" and putting spurs to his horse, he passed the stream, followed by his soldiers.

8. The news of this movement excited the utmost terror in Rome. The citizens reproached Pompey with his supineness. "Where now," said a senator, in derision, "is the army that is to rise up at your command? Let us see if it will come by stamping." Pompey himself was alarmed, and aware that he was unable to resist Cæsar in Rome, where the great body of the citizens were devoted to him, he led his forces to

Cap'ua, where he had two legions; thence he proceeded to Brundu'sium, and passed over to Dyrrach'ium, in Macedonia. He was followed by the consuls and a great part of the scnate, and took measures to levy troops both in Italy and Greece.

9. Cæsar having made himself master of Italy in 60 days, directed his course to Rome, entered the city triumphantly amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition. He made great ostentation of clemency, said that he entered Italy, not to injure, but to restore the liberties of Rome and the citizens, and gradually dissipated the fears which had been generally entertained of another proscription. After staying a few days in the city, he proceeded with his army to Spain, defeated Pompey's lieutenants, made himself master of the whole country, and returned victorious to Rome, where the citizens created him dictator and consul.

10. The monarchs of the East had declared in favor of Pompey, and had sent him large supplies; and he had at this time collected a numerous army. His cause was considered that of the commonwealth; and he was daily joined by crowds of the most distinguished nobles and citizens from Rome. He had, at one time, in his camp, upwards of 200 senators, among whom were Cicero and Cato, whose approbation alone was

equivalent to a host.

11. Cæsar staid only 11 days at Rome: being anxious to bring his antagonist to a decisive engagement, he pursued him with his army, and near Dyrrach'ium, an engagement took place, which terminated in favor of Pompey, who afterwards led his troops into the plains of Pharsa'lia. Cæsar did every thing to provoke a general battle; and when he saw his enemy advancing, he exclaimed, "The time we have so long wished for is come; let us see how we are to acquit ourselves." The contest was now calculated to excite the deepest interest; the two armies were composed of the best soldiers in the world, and were commanded by the two greatest generals of the age; and the prize contended for was nothing less than the Roman empire.

12. Pompey's army consisted of upwards of 50,000 men; Casar's, of less than half that number; yet the troops of the latter were far the best disciplined. On the side of Pompey, there was the most confident expectation of success; the minds of all being less occupied about the means of conquering, than about distributing the fruits of victory. The engagement

which lasted from early in the morning till noon, terminated in a decisive victory in favor of Cæsar, who lost only 200 men, while the loss of Bompey amounted to 15,000 killed, and

24,000 prisoners.

13. Cæsar, on this occasion, manifested his characteristic clemency, and the honors which he had acquired as victor were soon rendered more glorious by his humanity and moderation. He set at liberty the senators and Roman knights, and incorporated with the rest of his army the most of the prisoners. The baggage of Pompey was brought to him, containing numerous letters of his enemies; these he threw into the fire without opening them. When viewing the field strown withis fallen countrymen, he seemed affected at the melancholy sight, and exclaimed, as if by way of justification; "They would have it so!"

14. The fate of Pompey was wretched in the extreme. Accustomed to victory for 30 years, and master of the republic, he was in one day deprived of his power, and became a miserable fugitive. Taking with him his wife Corncha, he fled with very few attendants to Egypt, to seek protection of Ptolemy, whose father he had befriended. But he was basely murdered in the presence of his wife, and his body thrown upon the sand. His freed man burnt his corpse, and buried the ashes, over which the following inscription was afterwards placed:—"He, whose merits deserve a temple, can now scarcely find a grave." In the mean time, Cæsar had instantly followed Pompey into Egypt, and the head of his rival, which had been preserved, was presented to him; but he turned his face from it with horror, shedding tears on remembering their former friendship, and he ordered a splendid monument to be erected to his memory.

15. The throne of Egypt was now possessed by Ptolemy and his sister, the celebrated Cleopa'tra. The latter aspired to undivided authority, and Cæsar, captivated by the charms of the beautiful queen, decided the contest in her favor. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. Cæsar for a while abandoned himself to pleasure, in the company of Cleopatra, but was at length called away to suppress a revolt of Pharna'ccs, the son of Mithrida'tes, who had seized upon Colchis and Armenia. Cæsar subdued him with great ease, in a battle at Zela; and in his letter to Rome, he expressed the rapidity of his conquest in three words; Veni, vidi, vici; "I came, I saw

I conquered."

16. Cæsar now hastened to Rome, which he found in a state of great disorder, by reason of the bad government of Mark An'tony; but he soon restored transpillity. Pompey's party had rallied their forces in Africa, under the command of Cato and Scipio, assisted by Juba, king of Maurita'nia. Cæsar pursued them thither, and gained a complete victory in the battle of Thapsus. Cato, who was a rigid Stoic and stern republican, shut himself up in Utica, where he meditated a brave resistance; but perceiving all was lost, he killed himself in despair.

17. The war in Africa being thus ended, Cæsar returned again to Rome, and celebrated a most magnificent triumph, which lasted four days: the first was for Gaul; the second for Egypt; the third for his victories in Asia; and the fourth for his victory over Juba. He distributed liberally rewards to his veteran soldiers and officers, and to the citizens; he treated the people with combats of elephants, and engagements between parties of cavalry and infantry; and he entertained them at a public feast, at which 20,000 couches were placed for the guests. The multitude, intoxicated by these allurements of pleasure, cheerfully yielded up their liberties to their great enslaver. The senate and people vied with each other in acts of servility and adulation. He was hailed father of his country, was created perpetual dictator, received the title of imperator or emperor, and his person was declared sacred.

18. After having settled the affairs at Rome, he found himself obliged to go again into Spain, where *Labie'nus* and the two sons of Pompey had raised an army against him; but he completely defeated them in the obstinate and bloody battle of *Mun'da*, which decided the fate of the adherents of his

rival.

19. Having now acquired, by the force of his arms, the whole Roman empire, and subdued all who opposed his usurpation, Cæsar returned to Rome the master of the world. But no usurper ever used his power with greater wisdom and moderation. "I will not," he said, in one of his speeches, "renew the massacres of Sylla and Marius, the very remembrance of which is shocking to me. Now that my enemies are subdued, I will lay aside the sword, and endeavor, solely by my good offices, to gain over those who continue to hate me." He pardoned all who had carried arms against him, made no distinction with regard to parties, devoted himself to the prosperity and happiness of the people, corrected abuses, extended his care to the most distant provinces, reformed the calendar,

undertook to drain the Pontine marshes, to improve the navigation of the Tiber, and to embellish the city; and he conceived many note projects which he was not destined to realize.

20. Though Cæsar had repeatedly refused the crown when offered, by Mark Antony, to his acceptance, yet a rumor was widely circulated that he aspired to the name of an office of which he enjoyed all the splendid realities; and the fresh honors which the senate continued to heap upon him, were calculated to excite the envy and jealousy of a body of men who conspired against his life: nor could he, by his clemency and munificence, obliterate from the minds of the people the remembrance of their former constitution, or of the manner in which he had obtained his power. The conspiracy which was now formed against him, embraced no less than 60 senators; and at the head of it were Brutus and Cassius, men whose lives had been spared by the conqueror after the battle of Pharsalia. The former, who was beloved by Cæsar, and had received from him numerous favors, was actuated by hatred, not of the tyrant, but of tyranny, and sought the equivocal reputation of sacrificing all the ties of friendship and gratitude to the love of liberty and of his country. The latter thirsted for revenge against an envied and hated superior.

21. The rumor that the crown was to be conferred upon the dictator on the ides [15th] of March, induced the conspirators to fix upon that day for the execution of their designs; and no sooner had Cæsar taken his seat in the senate-house, than he was assailed by their naggers. He defended himself for a while with vigor, till, ... a sudden, seeing Brutus among the assailants, and being astonished at the desertion of his friend, he uttered the celebrated exclamation, Et tu Brute, "And you too, Brutus," when, muffling up his face with his mantle, he resigned himself to his fate, and fell pierced with 23 wounds. Thus perished Julius Casar, in the 56th year of his age, 14 years after he commenced his career of conquest in Gaul, and after having been only about 5 months in the undisputed possession of that power, which it had been

the chiect of his life to obtain.

22. Cæsar was one of the most extraordinary men that have appeared in history, uniting the three-fold character of the historian, the warrior, and the statesman. Although as the subverter of the liberties of his country, he deserves only to be detested; yet he is not without claims to admiration; for, together with his unbounded ambition, he possessed the most splen

83 Idid endowments of genius, and many noble qualities of the heart; and the world has scarcely seen a more able or a more

amiable despot.

23. His career was indeed bloody, involving in destruction west numbers of his species; yet he had no tendency to cru-Lety, except so far as it was necessary to effect his ambitious designs, nor any thirst for blood; and he was always distinguished for his clemency to a vanquished enemy. It has been said, by way of apology for him, that it was his misfortune to the born in a degenerate age: it was, however, the age in which flourished Cicero, Cato, and Brutus, who are ranked mamong the most illustrious of the Roman patriots.

24. In passing a small village among the Alps on his way to take upon himself the government of Spain, before the formation of the triumvirate, he remarked, that "he would rather be the first man in that village, than the second man in Rome." He had frequently in his mouth a verse of Eurip'ides, which . expresses the image of his soul; "That if right and justice were ever to be violated, they were to be violated for the sake

of reigning."

25. In his military character, he has probably never been surpassed. He was so much the idol of his troops, that in any important conjuncture, his lieutenant could say nothing more impressive to them than, "Soldiers, imagine that Cæsar beholds you!" Alexander was an heir to the throne, and carried into execution the splendid conquest which his father had projected, overrunning nations sunk in luxury and effeminacy. Cæsar, originally a private individual, appears as the framer of his own fortune, gradually rising, by well concerted plans, to the summit of power, pursuing an uninterrupted career of victory, and finally conquering the conquerors of the world.

26. "We are now contemplating that man," says Müller, "who, within the short space of 14 years, subdued Gaul, thickly inhabited by warlike nations; twice conquered Spain; entered Germany and Britain; marched through Italy at the head of a victorious army; destroyed the power of Pompey the Great; reduced Egypt to obedience; saw and defeated Pharna'ces; overpowered, in Africa, the great name of Cato, and the arms of Juba; fought 50 battles, in which 1,192,000 men fell; was the greatest orator in the world, next to Cicero; set a pattern to all historians, which has never been excelled; wrote learnedly on the sciences of grammar and augury; and, falling by a premature death, left memorials of his great plans for the extension of the empire, and the legislation of the world.

true it is, that it is not time that is wanting to men, but resolution to turn it to the best advantage."

27. The Roman people were struck with horror at the murder of Cæsar. Although he was a usurper, and had made himself master of their lives and fortunes, yet he was generally popular. His bleeding body was exposed in the forum; and over it Mark Antony, unfolding the bloody robe, prenounced a funeral oration; and by many eloquent appeals to the sympathy of the people, he so inflamed their feelings against his murderers, that they were obliged to escape forthwith from the city, in order to avoid destruction.

28. Mark Antony, a man of great military talents, but of most profligate character, Lep'idus, who was possessed of immense riches, and Octavius, or Octavia'nus Cæsar, afterwards surnamed Augustus, (the adopted heir of Cæsar, and his sister's grandson, now only in his 18th year,) concerted a plan to divide among themselves the supreme authority, and formed the Second Triunwirate, the effects of whose union were, be-

yond measure, dreadful to the republic.

29. They stipulated that all their enemies should be destroyed, and each sacrificed his best friends to the vengeance of his associates. Antony consigned to death his uncle Lucius; Lepidus, his brother Paulus; and Octavius gave up the celebrated Cicero, to whom he was under many obligations, in order to gratify the hatred of Antony. The great orator was assassinated in his 64th year, by Popillius Lænas, whose life he had saved in a capital cause. Antony caused his head to be fixed upon the rostra, a spectacle which drew tears from all virtuous citizens. Rome was again deluged in blood: in this horrible proscription, 300 senators, 2,000 knights, and many other respectable citizens were sacrificed.

30. Brutus and Cassius, whose object it was to restore the commonwealth, had retired to Thrace, and were at the head of an army of 100,000 men. Antony and Octavius pursued them with a still greater number of troops. The empire of the world again depended on the fate of a battle. The two armies met near Philip'pi, and, after a dreadful conflict of two days, the death-blow was given to Roman liberty, by the total defeat of the republican army. Brutus and Cassius, agreeably to a resolution which they had made before the battle, escaped the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death.

31 The triumvirs did not long live in harmony. Lep'idus was deposed and banished. Antony having summoned Cleo-

pa'tra to Tarsus, to answer to the charge of having given succor to the conspirators, she came decked in all the emblems of the queen of love, in a galley decorated in the most splendid style, and had the address to make a complete conquest of him. He forgot to decide upon her cause, gave up the pursuit of ambition, neglected all his affairs, and abandoned himself to licentious pleasure with the Egyptian queen. He lavished on her the provinces of the empire, for which he was declared an enemy to the Roman people; and on her account he divorced his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, which was a signal for open hostilities between him and Octavius.

32. A great naval battle, fought near Ac'tium, decided the contest against Antony and Cleopatra, and left Octavius sole master of the empire. Antony, following the example of many celebrated Romans, fell upon his own sword; and Cleopatra, in order to avoid being led captive to Rome, to grace the triumph of Augustus, procured her own death by

the poison of an asp.

SECTION VIII.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS: The Cosars; Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Norte, Galba, Othe, Vitellius, Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian.—From B. C. 31 to A. D. 96.

1. The battle of Actium terminated the commonwealth, and Octavius, now named Augus'tus, being the undisputed severeign of the whole Roman empire, had attained the object of his wishes. But, though ambitious of power, he was, nevertheless, aware of its dangers; and he counsulted his friends, Agrip'pa and Mecc'nus, respecting the course which it was advisable for him to pursue. Agrippa entreated him to restore liberty to his country; but Macenas represented to him the danger of tenouncing his authority, advised him to govern others as he would wish to be governed if it had been his destiny to obey, and suggested to him that under the title of Casar or Imperator, he might enjoy all the influence of a king, without offending the prejudices of his countrymen.

2. Augustus gave the preference to the advice of Mæcenas, as it best agreed with his natural love of power. Ite affected an appearance of great moderation and respect for the public rights, paid particular attention to the people, and having

completely gained their affections, he used every means to render permanent the attachment which already existed between him and his soldiers. It was his policy to change the nature, rather than the form of the government, and he had the address to rule as emperor, and yet preserve the appearance of a republic.

3. The reputation of Augustus, not only as a warrior, but as a legislator and statesman, extended to the remotest kingdoms. After having arrived at sovereign power, he engaged in some successful military enterprises; but the general character of his reign was pacific: he cherished the arts of peace, embellished the city, erected public edifices, pursued the policy of maintaining order and tranquillity throughout his vast empire, and the temple of Janus was now shut for the first time since the commencement of the second Punic war, and only the third time from the foundation of the city.

4. Augustus died in the 76th year of his age, after an illustrious reign of 44 years. His talents were unquestionably great; but the many instances of treachery and cruelty by which his conduct was marked, while a member of the triumvirate, have left a stain upon his character, and have caused it to be generally believed, that the virtues which he afterwards manifested, sprung from policy, rather than principle.

5. The emperor and his minister Mæcenas were both eminent patrons of learning and the arts; and the Augustan age of Roman literature has been celebrated by the admiration of all succeeding ages. Some of the distinguished men who illustrated this reign, were Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Livy.

6.—'The reign of Augustus was rendered memorable by the birth of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, which took place, according to the best authorities, in the 26th year of his reign, and four years before the period commonly assigned for the Christian era. In the 18th year of Tiberius, our Savior suffered death upon the cross.—

7. Augustus was succeeded by Tibe'rius, who was the son of his wife Liv'ia, by a former husband, and who had distirguished himself by his military talents. The new emperor commenced his reign by a show of moderation and clemency; but he soon threw off the mask, and appeared in his real character, as an odious and cruel tyrant. The specious form of the republic, which Augustus had continued, now disappeared, as well as the substance.

8. The brilliant successes of his nephew German'icus, in Germany, who had for his antagonist the celebrated German

general Armin'ius, and the high favor with which he was regarded by the people, excited the jealousy of Tiberius, who is supposed to have caused him to be poisoned. He then took into his confidence Seja'nus, a Roman knight, who became the minister of the tyranny, rapine, and cruelty, which characterized his reign, and who persuaded him to quit - Rome, and retire to the island of Capreæ, where he abandoned himself to the most infamous debaucheries. Seianus was now in possession of almost unlimited power, and after a short career of despotism, he was accused of treason, suddenly precipitated from his elevation, executed by the order of the senate, and his body ignominiously dragged through the streets. A few years afterwards, the death of Tiberica was hastened by strangling or poison, by one of his favorites. in the 78th year of his age, and the 22d of his reign.

9. Tiberius adopted for his heir and successor Calig'ula, his grand-nephew and the son of Germanicus, who commenced his reign under favorable auspices, and his first acts were beneficent and patriotic; but his subsequent conduct was so marked by profligacy, tyranny, madness, and folly, has to give countenance to the assertion that a disorder, which took place after his accession to power, had destroyed his understanding and altered his nature. He became almost as much the object of the contempt as of the hatred of his sub-Tects. He caused temples to be built, and sacrifices to be offered to himself as a divinity. He took such delight in cruelty, that he wished "that all the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a single blow." Seneca says of him, that "nature seemed to have brought him forth to show what was possible to be produced from the greatest vice, supported by the greatest authority." He was assassinated in the 4th year of his reign, and the 29th of his age.

10. After the death of Calig'ula, the senate were inclined to restore the republic; but, in the general corruption of morals, which, since the early part of the reign of Tiberius, had surpassed all former example, and extended to all classes of the people, the spirit of Roman liberty had disappeared. The army preferred an emperor, and Clau'dius, the uncle of Calig'ula, and the grandson of Mark Antony and Octavia, the sister of Augustus, was raised to the throne. He was a man of weak and timid character, a dupe even of his domestics, and

a slave of his infamous vices.

11. The most remarkable enterprise in the reign of Claudius, was his expedition into Britain, and the conquest of a part of that island by his generals. Carac'tacus, a British king, after a brave resistance, was taken prisoner, and carried captive to Rome, where his magnanimity gained him admiration. On being led through the streets, and observing the splendor around him, he exclaimed, "How is it possible, that men, possessed of such magnificence at home, should envy Carac' tacus an humble cottage in Britain!"

12. Claudius had five wives, of whom the fourth was Messali'na, whose very name is a proverbial reproach, and who, having abandoned herself to the most shameful profligacy, was put to death for her crimes. The emperor then married Agrippi'na, who was equally practised in vice, and who poisoned him in the 14th year of his reign, and the 64th of his age, in order to make way for Nero, her son by a former

husband.

13. Nere had enjoyed the advantage of a good education under the philosopher Sen'eca, and at the commencement of his reign, he pursued an excellent plan of government, which was laid down by Seneca and Burrhus, (the latter of whom was prefect of the pretorian guard,) and which held out the prospect of better times; but he soon got rid of his counsellors, abandoned himself to rioting and licentiousness, gained a notoriety for profligacy and cruelty above that of even all his predecessors, and rendered his name proverbial in all succeeding ages as a detestable tyrant. Among the numerous victims, who suffered death by his cruelty, were his mother Agrippi'na, his wives Octavia and Poppæ'a, Seneca and Burrhus, also Lucan, the poet.

14. He is charged with having caused the city of Rome to be set on fire, in mere wantonness, that it might exhibit the representation of the burning of Troy; and he stood upon a high tower that he might enjoy the scene. The conflagration continued nine days, and a great part of the city was burnt to ashes. In order to avert from himself the public odium of the crime, he charged it upon the Christians, who had now become numerous in Rome, and commenced against them a most dreadful persecution, in which St. Paul

was beheaded.

15. Nero, who rendered himself no less contemptible by his follies and extravagances than hateful by his crimes, was too odious a monster to be long endured. A conspiracy, headed by Vindex in Gaul, and Galba in Spain, hurled him, at length, from the throne. Galba, in a speech, recapitulating his crimes, said: "What enormity has been too great for him? Is he not

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stained with the blood of his father, his mother, his wife, his preceptors, of all those who, in the senate, the city, or the provinces, were distinguished by birth, riches, courage, or virtue? The blood of these innocent victims cries for vengeance: and since we are possessed of arms, and of power of using them, let us disdain to obey, not a prince, but an incendiary, a parricide, a singer, and an actor." The senate having passed sentence against him, he avoided falling into their hands by a voluntary death, in the 14th year of his reign, and the

32d of his age.

16 After the death of Nero, Galba was declared emperor, both by the senate and by the legions under his command. He was esteemed a man of courage, talents, and virtue, and had acquired a high reputation in the command of armies in the provinces; but he was now in the 72/1 year of his age, and he soon became unpopular by his severity and parsimony, and by the abuses practised by his favorites. He adopted for his successor the virtuous Piso, a measure which gave offence to Otho, his former favorite, who excited a rebellion against him, and caused the death both of the emperor and of Piso, after a reign of only seven months. Tacitus savs of him. that, "Had he never ascended the throne, he would have been thought, by all, capable of reigning."

17. Otho was then proclaimed emperor; but he found a formidable rival in Vitcl'lius, by whose lieutenants he was defeated, and he slew himself after a reign of 95 days. Vitel'lius, being saluted as emperor, is said to have proposed Nero for his model, and rendered himself odious to the people by his tyranny and profligacy. Vespa'sian, who was now at the head of the Roman army in Egypt, was proclaimed emperor by his troops; Rome was taken by one of his generals, and Vitel'lius was assassinated before he had completed the first

year of his reign.

18. Vespa'sian was declared emperor by the unanimous consent of the senate and the army; and on his arrival at Rome, he was received with the greatest joy. He had risen by his merit from a mean origin; was distinguished for his affability, clemency, and firmness; and reigned with high popularity for ten years, promoting the welfare of his subjects. He restored order, built the celebrated amphitheatre or Coliseum, whose ruins still attest its grandeur, cherished the arts, and patronized learned men, among whom were Josephus, the Jewish historian, Quintilian, the orator, and Pliny, the naturalist.

- 19. The reign of Vespasian is memorable for the destruction of Jerusalem, which was effected by his son Titus, after a tremendous siege of six months, the city being taken and razed to the ground, so that, according to the prediction of our Savior, "not one stone remained upon another." The number that perished in this siege, according to Josephus, amounted to upwards of a million, and the captives to almost a hundred thousand. The wretched survivors were banished, sold, and driven into various parts of the world, and have continued to this time a dispersed, yet a distinct people, and a monument of the truth of Revelation.
- 20. Vespasian was succeeded by his son Titus, who exhibited such an example of justice, humanity, and generosity, that he obtained the enviable appellation of the "Delight of mankind." Recollecting one evening, that he had done no beneficent act during that day, he made the celebrated exclamation; "My friends, I have lost a day!" During his reign, happened that dreadful eruption of Vesu'vius, which overwhelmed the cities of Hercula'neum and Pompe'ii, and caused the death of Plin'y, the naturalist. Titus died in the 3d year of his reign, and the 41st of his age, not without suspicion of being poisoned by his brother Domi'tian, who succeeded him.
- 21. Domi'tian was another monster of profligacy and cruelty. He caused himself to be worshipped as a god; put to death the most illustrious Romans, and took pleasure in witnessing the torture of his victims. He banished the philosophers from Rome, and raised a dreadful persecution against the Christians. When secluded from the world, he passed his time in vicious and degrading amusements. He was so much in the habit of catching fles, and piercing them through with a bodkin, that one of his servants, being asked if any one was with the emperor, answered, "Not even a fly."

22. After a reign of 15 years, Domi'tian was assassinated at the instigation of his wife, who had discovered that he had put her name on the list of those whom he designed to destroy. This reign was signalized by the successes of the Romans in Britain, under the command of Agric'ola, a great general, who had been sent into that country by Vespa'sian, and who made an entire conquest of all the southern part of the island.

23. Domitian was the last of those emperors who are called the Tw lve Cwsars, Julius Cwsar, the dictator, being consid-

stred the first, though Augustus was the first that is generally styled emperor: and Nero was, in reality, the last emperor of the family of Augustus.

SECTION IX.

Nerva: Trajan: A Irian: Antoninus Pius: Marcus Aurelius
Antoninus.—From A. D. 96 to 180.

1. After the death of Domitian, the senate elected for his successor Nerva, who was 65 years old, and venerable for his virtues, as well as for his age. He was distinguished for clemency, but did not possess energy sufficient to repress the disorders of the empire. Having adopted Trajan for his

successor, he died after a reign of 16 months.

2. Traian, who was a native of Seville, in Spain, is esteemed the greatest and most powerful, and one of the most virtuous, of the Roman emperors. He has been highly commended for his affability, his simplicity of manners, his clemency, and munificence. He was the greatest general of his age, possessed an ardent spirit of enterprise, accustomed himself to hardship, and even after he ascended the throne, marched on foot, at the head of his troops, over extensive regions. On presenting the sword to the pretorian prefect, he gave this remarkable charge; "Make use of it for me, if I do my duty; if I do not, against me." The senate conferred on him the surname of Optimus or Best; and for more than than 200 years, that body was accustomed to hail every new emperor "Reign fortunately, as Augustus; with the exclamation: virtuously, as Trajan."

3. During the reign of Trajan, the boundaries of the empire were more extensive than either before or afterwards. He subdued the *Dacians*, conquered the *Parthians*, and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. In commemoration of his victories over the Dacians, he erected a pillar, which bears his name, and which still remains in Rome, one of the most remarkable ancient monu-

ments in the city.

4. He was a munificent patron of literature, and in his reign flourished Pliny the Younger, Juvenal, and Plutarch He died, greatly lamented by his subjects, in the 20th year of his reign, and the 63d of his age. The character of this great prince was tarnished by a want of equity with regard to the Christians, whom he suffered to be percent

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- 5. Trajan was succeeded by A'drian, his nephew, where was an able sovereign, generally beneficent and equitable is government; distinguished also for his eloquence and he taste in the liberal arts; but was, nevertheless, chargeab with cruelty and licentiousness. Judging the limits of the empire too extensive, he abandoned the conquests of Trajan declined war, devoted himself to the arts of peace, and promoted the welfare of his subjects. He undertook to visit, is person, all the provinces of the empire, in which expedition he spent 13 years. In his progress, he reformed abuses relieved his subjects from burdens, and rebuilt cities. While in Britain, he erected a turf wall or rampart across the island from Carlisle to Newcastle, in order to prevent the incursions of the Picts.
- 6. He rebuilt Jcrusalem, and changed its name to Æ'lia Capitoli'na. The Jews, incensed at the privileges which the pagan worshippers enjoyed in the new city, made a great slaughter of the Romans and Christians residing in Judea; in consequence of which, the emperor sent against them a powerful army, which destroyed upwards of 1000 of their best towns, and slew nearly 600,000 men. A'drian adopted for his successor Titus Antoni'nus, and died in the 22d year of his reign, and the 62d of his age.

7. Titus Antoni'nus, more commonly called Antoninus Pius, had a reign of 23 years, which was marked by few striking events; but it will ever be distinguished in the Roman annals for the public and private virtues which exalted his character. It was his favorite maxim, that "he would rather save the life of one citizen, than put to death a thou-

sand enemies."

8. This excellent sovereign adopted for his successor his son-in-law, Marcus Aure'lius Antoni'nus, surnamed the Philosopher. He is esteemed the best model of pagan virtue among the Roman emperors; and "appeared," says an ancient author, "like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness." He was attached, both by nature and education, to the Stoic philosophy, which he admirably exemplified in his life, as well as illustrated in his work, entitled "Meditations."

9. Distinguished as the two An'tonines were for justice and humanity, yet the persecution of the Christians was permitted, in some degree, during their reigns. It was to the former of the two, that Justin Martyr presented his first "Apology for Christianity;" and the Roman army under

the latter experienced, by means of a thunder-storm, a remarkable deliverance, which has been represented by many as miraculous, and which gave to a legion of Christians, then serving under Aurelius, the name of the Thundering Legion.

—The name of the wife of each of these emperors was Faustina, and both of them were noted as women of the most abandoned character.

10. Aurelius died in the 19th year of his reign, and the 59th of his age. He was the last of the sovereigns styled "The five good emperors;" and the glory and prosperity of the Roman people seemed to perish with him. From this time, we beheld a succession of sovereigns, who, with few exceptions, were either weak or vicious; an empire grown too large, sinking by its own weight, surrounded by barbarous and successful enemies without, and torn by ambitious and cruel factions within; the principles of the times wholly corrupted; and patriotism, virtue, and literature, gradually becoming almost extinct.

SECTION X.

From Commedus to Constantine .- From A. D. 180 to 306

1. Aurelius was succeeded by his most unworthy son Com'medus, who resembled his mother Fausti'na, and equalled even Nero in profligacy and cruelty. He was assassinated in the 13th year of his reign, and the 32d of his age; and Per'timax, a man of mean birth, who had risen by his merit, and who, from the various conditions through which he passed, was styled "the teanis-ball of fortune," was proclaimed his successor by the pretorian guards. But the new emperor, giving offence by his severity in correcting abuses, was, after a reign of three months, put to death by the same hands that had placed him on the throne.

2. The empire was now put up to tale by the soldiers, and was purchased by Did'ius Julia'nus, who was murdered in the fifth month of his reign, by order of Septim'ius Seve'rus, who was proclaimed emperor in his stead. He had two competitors for the empire, Niger and Albi'nus, both of whom were entirely defeated. Seve'rus was an able warrior, and governed with ability, yet with despotic rigor. He made an expedition into Britain, and built a stone wall extending from Solway frith to the German ocean, and

nearly parallel to that of A'drian. He died at York, in the

18th year of his reign.

3. Seve'rus lest the empire to his two sons, Caracalla and Geta; the former of whom murdered the latter, and after a tyrannical reign of six years, he was himself assassinated at the instigation of Macri'nus, who succeeded to the throne, and who, after a reign of 14 months, was supplanted by Heliograb'alus, who caused him to be put to death.

- 4. Heliogab'abus succeeded to the throne when only 14 years old; yet at this early age, he showed himself to be a monster of vice, equalling the worst of his predecessors in extravagance, profligacy, and cruelty. He was murdered in the 4th year of his reign; yet in this short period, he had exhausted all the resources of pleasure, and had married and divorced six wives.
- 5. Heliogab'alus was succeeded by his cousin Alexanderi Seve'rus, a mild, beneficent, and enlightened prince, whose excellent character shines the brighter from the contrast of those who preceded and followed him. He was murdered in the 14th year of his reign, and the 29th of his age, at the instruction of Max'imia, the son of a herdsman of Thrace and a Goth by nation, who succeeded to the throne, and who was nearly eight feet and a half in height, and not less remarkable for the symmetry of his person, and his extraordinary strength, than his gigant stature; and was also distinguished for his military talents.

6. The interval from the time of Alexander Seve'rus to that of Diocle'tian, was filled by 16 reigns; those of Max'imin, Max'imus and Balbi'nus, Gor'dian, Philip, De'cius, Gallus, Emilia'nus, Vale'rian, Gallie'nus, Clau'dius, Aure'lian, Taç'itus, Flo'rian, Probus, Carus, Cari'nus, and Nume'rian; a period of 49 years, which furnishes little that is pleasing or interesting. The short reigns of most of these emperors were alike disastrous to themselves and their subject; and all of them, except Claudius and Tacitus, were cut off by a

violent death.

7. The emperor Vale'rian, in a war with Sapor, king of Persia, was defeated and taken prisoner. Sapor treated his captive with the greatest indignity and cruelty; he used him as a footstool in mounting his horse; afterwards ordered his eyes to be plucked out, and finally caused him to be flaved alive.

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SECTION XI.

From the Accession of Constantine to the Extinction of the Western Empire.—From A. D. 306 to 476.

1. Constantius died at York, in Britain, having appointed his son Con'stantine his successor; Galerius also died four years after; and Con'stantine, surnamed the Great, having defeated all his competitors, became sole master of the empire. One of the principal competitors for the crown was Maxen'tius; and historians relate that when Constantine was marching at the head of his army against this rival, he beheld in the heavens a luminous cross, with an inscription in Greek, τουτω νικα; "Conquer by this;" and that in consequence of this vision, and the success which attended his arms, he embraced Christianity.

2. But whatever may have been the circumstance which first attracted the favorable notice of Constantine, he became the avowed friend and supporter of Christianity, and has the honor of being enrolled as the first Christian emperors. He put an end to the persecution of the Christians, and also to the combass of gladiators, and other barbarous exhibitions. His reign forms an important era in ecclesiastical history, as the Roman government now became the professed protector of the religion which it had repeatedly and cruelly

persecuted.

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3. An important event in the reign of Constantine, was the removal of the seat of empire from Rome to Byzan'tium, which latter city, from him, took the name of Constantinople. The empire had long been verging to ruin, and this measure is thought to have hastened its downfall. Constantine died in the 31st year of his reign, and the 63d of his age. His character has been variously represented by different writers. "It is manifest," says Müller, "that the genius of Con'stantine, fertile, if not happy, at least in specious ideas, gave a new direction to the course of human affairs. He maintained peace by the reputation of his arms; and his name, alternately too much exalted and unjustly degraded by prejudiced historians, deserves an honorable mention among the monarchs of the Roman world."

4. Constantine divided the empire between his three sons, Con'stantine 11., Con'stans, and Constan'tius 11., and two nephews. In the space of a few years, all these princes were ain, except Constan'tius, the youngest of the sols, who re-

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mained sole master of the empire. He had a weak and unfortunate reign of 24 years, during which the empire was harassed and weakened by the inroads of the barbarians from the north, and the incursions of the Persians on the eastern provinces.

5. Constan'tius was succeeded by his cousin Ju'lian, surnamed the Apostate, because, after having received a Christian education, he relapsed into paganism. He was possessed of considerable talents and learning, and of many heroic qualities; but was the slave of the most bigoted superstition. He restored the pagan worship, and attempted to suppress Christianity. He undertook to reassemble the Jews, and rebuild their temple; but his design is stated, by a number of ancient writers, to have been miraculously defeated by the eruption of fire-balls from the ground. Ju'lian was killed in a war with the Persians, in the second year of his reign, and the 32d of his age.

6. Ju'lian was succeeded by Jo'vian, who restored the Christian religion, and recalled Athanasius, who had been banished by Julian, but died after a short reign of seven months. Valentin'ian, who was then chosen emperor, associated with himself his brother Va'lens, giving him the eastern provinces, which occasioned the final separation of the empire into Eastern and Western. The barbarians continued to make inroads into different parts of the empire, and the

Goths now obtained a settlement in Thrace.

7. The successor of Valentinian was his son Gra'tian, who, on the death of Valens, associated with himself Theodo'sius, afterwards surnamed the Great. After the death of Gra'tian, and his brother Valentinian II., Theodosius became sole master of the empire. His reign was signalized by the complete establishment of Christianity, and the downfall of paganism in the Roman dominions. Being an able and politic sovereign, he repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and by his wise administration, strengthened, in some measure, the empire, which had, for a considerable time, been hastening to its fall. He was the last sovereign who presided over both divisions of the empire; and, after a reign of 18 years, he was succeeded by his sons, Hono'rius in the West, and Arca'dius in the East.

8. Through the weakness of Honorius and Arcadius, the barbarians were enabled to establish and strengthen themselves in their territories. (The Goths, under the conduct of the famous Allaric, spread their devastations to the very walls

of Constantinopte, and filled all Greece with the terror of their arms. Al'aric then penetrated into Italy, at the head of a large army, but was defeated with great loss by the Romans, under Stil'icho. After the death of Stil'icho, Al'aric invaded the country a second time, and being joined by 300,000 auxiliaries, he took and pillaged several cities of Italy, and at length pitched his camp before the walls of Rome. This great city, which had long sat as mistress of the world, and had for ages enriched herself with the spoils of vanquished nations, was now reduced to the greatest extremities by famine and pestilence.

9. After the famine had made the most dreadful ravages, Al'aric entered Rome, deprived Honorius of the imperial dignity, and gave up the city to be plundered by his soldiers. "All the riches of the world," said Al'aric, in addressing his army, "are here concentrated: to you I abandon them: but I command you to spill the blood of none but those whom you find in arms; and to spare such as take refuge in the churches." The fearful devastation continued for six days, during which, these fierce barbarians indulged their cruelty and ferocity without pity or restraint.

10. Al'aric died immediately after this conquest; and the Goths, having elected in his stead Ataul'phus, for their leader, took possession of the southern part of Gaul, and likewise passed over the mountains, and founded their kingdom in

Spain.

11. A few years after the sacking of Rome by Al'aric. commenced the sanguinary ravages of the Huns, a barbarous people of Scythian origin, under the command of their ferocious king At'tila, styled the Scourge of God. Having ravaged the Eastern Empire, he invaded Gaul with an army of 500,000 men; and, on the plains of Chalons, was defeated by the combined forces of the Romans, under Æ'tius (who is styled by Gibbon, "the last of the Romans"), and the Goths, under Theod'oric, with a loss, according to the lowest accounts, of 160,000 men. Notwithstanding this defeat, he soon after invaded Italy, extended his ravages to the gates of Rome, and compelled Valentinian III. to purchase a peace, by an immense dowry to be given to him with the emperor's sister Hono'ria. But the death of At'tila soon followed, and by this event, the earth was delivered from a warrior who had never suffered Europe to enjoy any repose, and who had never enjoved any himself.

12 Valentinian III. being assassinated at the instiga-

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empress Eudox'ia invited Gen'seric, king of the Vandals, to take vengeance on the murderer of her husband. He eagerly embraced the opportunity of disguising his rapacious designs, landed in Italy with a numerous army of Moors and Vandals, took the city of Rome, and gave it up to his soldiers to be pillaged, with implacable fury, for 11 days; during which those monuments of art and literature, which Al'aric had spared, were ransacked and destroyed.

13. From the death of Valentinian III., the Western Empire dragged on a precarious and lingering existence, under nine successive emperors, for 21 years, till it was finally terminated, in 476, by the resignation of the last emperor, Romulus Augustulus, to Odoa'cer, the chief of the Her'uli, who assumed the title of king of Italy; and from this period the

history of Rome merges into that of Italy.

14. "Such was the end of this great empire, that had conquered the world with its arms, and instructed mankind with its wisdom; that had risen by temperance, and that fell by luxury; that had been established by a spirit of patriotism, and that sunk into ruin when the empire had become so extensive, that the title of a Roman citizen was but an empty name."

SECTION XII.

The Kingdom of the Heruli, of the Goths, and of the Lombards in Italy.—The Eastern Empire, to its Extinction in 1453.

1. The kingdom of the Her'uli, in Italy, continued only about 17 years; at the end of which period, Theod'oric the Great. king of the Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, defeated and slew Odoa'cer, made himself master of all Italy, was acknowledged sovereign of the country, and fixed his residence at Raven'na. Theod'otus, the third Gothic king of Italy, was defeated and slain by Belisa'rius, the general of Justinian, who made himself master of Rome. But the Ostrogoths, under the brave Tot'ila, recovered their authority, but were, in the Uterly defeated, after their dominion in Italy had lasted 64 years, by Nar'scs, who succeeded Belisarius, and who governed Italy 13 years.

2. Narses having been recalled by Justin II., the successor of Justinian, invited Alboin, king of the Lombards, or Low-

gobards, to avenge his injury. Alboin overran and subdued the country, was proclaimed king, and made Pavia the capital of his dominions. The kingdom of the Lombards, in Italy, during the successive reigns of 22 kings, lasted 206 years, till 774, when Deside'rius, or Didier, was defeated by Charlemagne, and Italy was afterwards incorporated into the new Empire of the West. The period which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, was one of the most calamitous and distressing in the history of the world.

3. The Goths were originally from Scandina'via, and were distinguished for hospitality and heroic virtues. At the time of their taking Rome, under Alaric, they had partially embraced Christianity. The Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or Eastern Goths and Western Goths, were so called from their situation. The Her'uli were of Gothic origin; and the Lombards were originally either from Scandina'via, or the north of Germany.

4: The Eastern Empire, called also the Greek Empire, and the Empire of Constantinople, although it suffered from the ravages of the barbarous nations who overthrew the Western Empire, yet it resisted their attacks, and subsisted more than 11 centuries, from the time of its foundation by Constantine. This long period furnishes but few events which are particularly interesting.

5. This empire was in the meridian of its glory in the 6th century, during the long reign of Justin'san, sometimes styled the Great, who published a celebrated code of laws, prepared by Tribo'nian, a great lawyer of that age. This code is regarded as the foundation of the jurisprudence of modern

Europe.

6. During the reign of Justinian, Belisa'rius and Nar'ses, the two most renowned generals of the age, defended the empire against the Persians, recovered Africa from the Vandals, and Italy from the Goths, and obtained several great victories over these fierce enemies. Justinian built the church of St. Sophia, which is now a Mahometan mosque. He and some of his successors patronized the arts and learning, and endeavored to revive a taste for literature and science in the dark ages; yet the majority of these emperors were sovereigns, debased by luxury and vice.

7. After the removal of the seat of empire, there arose a rivalship between the pope or bishop of Rome, and the patriarch of Constantinople, each contending for the precedence

This controversy, which occupies a prominent place in the history of the times, finally terminated in the entire separation of the Western or Roman, and the Eastern or Greek churches.

8. In 1204, the crusaders took and pillaged Constantinople, and proclaimed their leader, *Baldwin*, count of Flanders, sovereign of the empire. They kept possession of the throne till 1261, under the reign of five French or Latin emperors. During this period, the Greek emperors made *Nice* the seat

of their power.

9. In 1453, during the reign of Constantine XII., Ma'homet II., at the head of 300,000 Turks, besieged and took Constantinople, and gave up the city to be plundered by his soldiers. He put a final end to the Eastern Empire; and since that event, Constantinople has continued the seat of the Turkish government.

[For a chronological view of Roman History, see page 325.]

SECTION XIII.

ROMAN ANTIQUITIES.

1. Some account of the origin and nature of most of the principal offices, or magistracies, in the Roman government, and also of the division of the inhabitants, has already been

given.

2. The whole structure of the constitution under the monarchy, has, upon the authority of Dionys'ius of Halicurnas'sus, been attributed, by most authors, to Rom'ulus, a leader of a band of shepherds or fugitives. Yet it is doubtless true, that the Roman government, like most others, was the gradual result of circumstances; the fruit of time, and of political emergency.

3. In addition to the divisions of the people, which are attributed to Romulus, into three tribes, each of them consisting of 10 curiæ, and into two orders, patricians and plebeians, further subdivisions were afterwards made. To the three tribes, into which the city was at first divided, Servius Tullius added a fourth; and the four tribes were named from the quarters where they dwelt, the Pal'atine, Subur'ran, Col-

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Latine, and Es'quiline. Augustus afterwards divided the city unto 14 wards.

4. Besides this local division, Servius distributed the citizens into six classes, and each class into several centuries, or portions of citizens, so called, not because they consisted of 100, but because they were obliged to furnish and maintain 100 men in time of war. The six classes were formed according to their property; the first consisting of the richest citizens, and the sixth, which was the most numerous, of the poorest. The whole number of centuries was 193.

5. To the two orders of patricians and plebeians, there was afterwards added the equestrian order, composed of equites, or knights, who were chosen under the direction of the censor, and presented with a horse at the public expense, and a gold ring. They were taken promiscuously from those of the patricians and plebeians, who had attained their 18th year.

and whose fortune amounted to £3,229.

6. There were, besides, some other distinctions among the Roman people, as nob'iles, the noble, including those whose ancestors had held the office of consul, pretor, censor, or curule edile, and who had a right to make images of themselves. The hom'ines novi, or new men, were persons who were the first of their families that had raised themselves to any of the above offices. The ignob'iles, or ignoble, were those who had no images of their own, or of their ancestors. Those whose parents had always been free, were called ingen'ui; and those who had been slaves, but had been made free, were styled liber'ti, and liberti'ni.

7. The Roman citizens were not merely those who resided in the city and Roman territory, but the freedom of the city was granted to other parts of Italy, and afterwards to foreign cities and towns in the empire, whose inhabitants, thereby,

enjoyed the same rights as the Romans.

8. The slaves were an unfortunate class of persons, who performed all domestic services, and were employed also in various trades and manufactures. They were considered as mere property, at the absolute disposal of their owners, and were publicly sold in a market-place. Mer became slaves by being taken in war, or by being born in a state of servetude; criminals also were reduced to slavery by way of punshment.

9. Kings. The kings of Rome were not absolute or hereditary but limited and elective. They could neither enact

laws, nor make war or peace, without the concurrence of the senate and people. Their badges were a white robe, adorned with stripes of purple, or fringed with the same color, a golden crown, and an ivory sceptre. They sat in the curule chair, which was a chair of state, made or adorned with ivory; and they were attended by 12 lictors, carrying fasces, which were bundles of rods with an axe [securis] stuck in the middle.

10. Senate. The senate at first consisted of 100 members, but was afterwards increased to 200 by Tarquin the Elder; and near the dissolution of the republic, it comprised upwards of 1000. The senators were at first nominated by the kings; but they were afterwards chosen by the consuls, and at last by the censors. This body was usually assembled three times a month, but was frequently called together on other days for special business. A decree, passed by a majority of the senate, and approved by the tribunes of the people, was termed senatus consultum. The senators were styled patres, or fathers, on account of their age, gravity, and the paternal care they had of the state. From them the patricians derived their designation, because the senate was, at first, composed wholly of that order.

11. Magistrates in general. The magistrates in the Roman republic were elective, and previous to their election they were called *candida'ti* [candidates], from a white robe which they were while soliciting the votes of the people.

12. The Roman magistrates were divided into ordinary, extraordinary, and provincial. The ordinary magistrates were those who were created at stated times, and were constantly in the republic: the chief of these were the consuls, censors, tribunes, ediles, and questors. The extraordinary were such as rose out of some public disorder or emergency: these were the dictator and the master of the horse, who commanded the cavalry; the decemvirs, the military tribunes, and the interex. The provincial magistrates were those who were appointed to the government of the provinces. These were at first pretors, afterwards pro-consuls and pro-prétors, to whom were joined questors and lieutenants.

13. Consuls. The consuls had the same badges as the kings, with the exception of the crown; and their authority was nearly equal, except that it was limited to one year. In dangerous conjunctures, they were clothed with absolute power, by a solemn decree, "that the consuls take care the commonwealth receive no harm." In order to be a candidate for the consulship, it was requisite to be 43 years of age.

14. Pretors. The pretor, who was next in dignity to the consuls, and in their absence supplied their place, was appointed to administer justice. He presided in the assemblies of the people, convened the senate upon any emergency, and exhibited certain public games. There was at first but one pretor, then two, afterwards more.

15. Censors. The office of censor was esteemed more honorable than that of consul, although attended with less power. There were two censors, chosen every five years, and their most important duty was performed every fifth year, in taking the census of the people; after which they made a solemn lustration, or expiatory sacrifice, in the Campus Martius. in the name of the people.

16. Tribunes. The office of the tribunes was instituted merely to protect the plebeians against the patricians; but

the tribunes gradually acquired very great power.

17. Ediles. The ediles were so named from their office, which was the care of the public edifices, baths, aqueducts, roads, markets, &c. They were of two kinds; plebeian ediles, who were assistants to the tribunes; and curule ediles.

who superintended the public games.

- 18. Questors. The questors were elected by the prople to take care of the public revenue. At first there were only two, but several more were afterwards added. The military questors accompanied the army, and took care of the payment of the soldiers. The provincial questors attended the consuls or pretors into their provinces, and received the taxes and tribute.
- 19. Assemblies of the people. An assembly of the whole Roman people, to give their vote on any subject, was called comitia. There were three kinds of comitia; the curiata, the centuriata, and the tributa. The comitia were summoned, by some magistrate, to pass laws, to elect magistrates, to decide concerning peace and war, and to try persons guilty of certain heinous crimes.

20. The comi'tia curia'ta consisted of an assembly of the resident Roman citizens, who were divided into 30 cu'ria, a majority of which determined all matters of importance which

were laid before them.

21. The comitia centuriata were the principal assembly of the people, in which they gave their votes, divided into the centuries of their classes, according to the census. At these comitia, the consuls, pretors, and censors were created, the

most important laws enacted, cases of high treason tried, and war declared. They met in the *Campus Martius*, and all Roman citizens, whether residing in the city or country, had a right to be present, and vote with their respective centuries.

22. The comittia tributa were an assembly, in which the people voted divided into tribes, according to their regions or wards. They were held to create inferior magistrates, to

elect certain priests, to make laws, and hold trials.

23. The comitia continued to be assembled for upwards of 700 years, when that liberty was abridged by Julius Cæsar, and after him by Augustus, each of whom shared the right of creating magistrates with the people. Tiberius deprived the people altogether of the right of election.

24. Priests. The ministers of religion did not form a distinct order from the Roman citizens, but were chosen from the most honorable men in the state. Some of the priests were common to all the gods; others were appropriated to a particular deity: of the former kind, the most important were the pontif'ices, the au'gures, the harus'pices, the quindecem'-viri, and the septem'viri; who were all subject to the pon'tifex max'imus, or high priest, chosen by the people.

25. The pontifices among the Romans were priests, 15 in number, who judged all causes relating to religion, regulated the feasts, sacrifices, and all other sacred institutions, and inspected the lives and manners of the inferior priests. The pon'tifex max'imus, or high priest, was a person of great dignity and authority: he held his office for life, and all the

other priests were subject to him.

26. The augures, or augurs, were 15 in number, and were of great authority. It was their office to foretell future events, to interpret dreams, oracles, prodigies, &c., and to say whether any action would be fortunate or not. They divined the future chiefly in five ways—from the appearance of the heavens, as thunder and lightning; from the singing or flight of birds; from the eating of chickens; from quadrupeds; and from uncommon accidents, as sneezing, stumbling, seeing apparitions, &c. &c.

27. The harus'pices were priests whose business it was to look upon the beasts offered in sacrifice, and by them to divine the success of any enterprise, and to obtain omens of futurity. They derived their omens from the entrails of beasts; also from the flame, smoke, and other chromstances attending the

sacrifice.

28. The quindecem'viri were 15 priests who had the charge of the Sib'ylline books, which were three prophetic volumes, said to have been procured from a woman of extraordinary appearance, in the time of Tarquin the Proud. They were supposed to contain the fate of the Roman empire, and were kept in a stone chest under the Capitol.

29. The septem'viri were seven priests who prepared the sacred feasts at the games, processions, and other solemn oc-

casions; and they were also assistants to the pontifices.

30. The priests of particular deities were called Flam'ines. the chief of them were the Dia'lis, priest of Jupiter; the Salii, priests of Mars; the Lupe'vii, priests of Pan; the Poti'tii, priests of Hercules; the Gal'li, priests of Cyb'ele; and the Vestal Virgins, consecrated to the worship of Vesta.

31. The Romans worshipped their gods in temples consecrated by the augurs; also in groves. Their worship con-

sisted chiefly in prayer, vows, and sacrifice.

32. Festivals. The Romans celebrated feasts in January in honor of Janus; in February were the Luperca'lia, or feasts of Pan, and the Fera'lia, in honor of ghosts or spirits of the deceased; in March, the Matrona'lia, a feast kept by the Roman matrons, and the Quinqua'tria, in honor of Minerva; in April; the Cerea'lia, in honor of Ceres; in December, the Saturna'lia, or the feasts of Saturn, the most famous of all the festivals. There were besides many other festivals.

33. Games. The shows exhibited in the circus maximus were chariot and horse-races; contests of strength and agility; mock fights on horse-back; combats of wild beasts; representations of horse and foot battles; and nauma'chiæ, or

mock naval battles.

34. Gladiators. The gladiators were persons who fought with weapons in a public circus or amphitheatre, for the amusement of the people. These combats were introduced about the 400th year of the city, and became a most favorite entertainment. The combatants were, at first, composed of captives, slaves, and condemned malefactors, who were regularly trained for the combat; but in the more degenerate period of the empire, free-born citizens, and even senators engaged in this disgraceful and dangerous amusement. Great numbers of men were destroyed in these inhuman exhibitions. After the triumph of Trajan over the Dacians, spectacles were exhibited for 123 days, in which 11,000 animals of different kinds were killed; and 10,000 gladiators fought.

- 35. Triumph. A triumph was a solemn procession, in which a victorious general and his army advanced through the city to the Capitol. It was the highest military honor which could be obtained in the Roman state, and was reserved for those generals, who, by hard-earned victories and glorious achievements, had added to the territories of the commonwealth, or had delivered the state from threatened danger. The procession began from the Campus Martius, and passed through the most public places in the city to the Capitol; the streets being strewed with flowers, and the altars smoking with incense. It was composed of musicians, oxen for sacrifice, carriages carrying the spoils taken from the enemy, the captive kings or leaders and their attendants, and after the whole, the triumphant general, dressed in purple, embroidered with gold, with a crown of laurel upon his head, and other decorations.
- 36. Dress. The most distinguished parts of the Roman dress were the toga and the tu'nica. The toga, or gown, worn by Roman citizens only, was loose and flowing, and covered the whole body; it had no sleeves, and was disposed in graceful folds, to give the wearer a majestic appearance. The toga virt'lis, or manly gown, was assumed by young men at the age of 17 years.—The tu'nica, or tunic, was a white woollen vest, which came down a little below the knees before, and to the middle of the leg behind, and was fastened tight about the waist by a girdle.
- 37. Meals. The principal meal of the Romans was called crena or supper, which took place about three o'clock in the afternoon, and exceeded in luxury every thing known in modern times. The early Romans lived chiefly on bread and pot-herbs; but when riches were introduced by their conquests, luxury seized all ranks, and every thing was ransacked to gratify the appetite. In the early ages, the Romans sat at meals, but afterwards they reclined on sumptuous couches. Their ordinary drink at feasts was wine, which they mixed with water, and sometimes with spices.
- 38. Forum. The Forum was the principal public place in the city. It was a large, oblong, open space, where the assemblies of the people were held, where justice was administered, and public business transacted. It was entirely surrounded with arched porticos, within which were spacious halls, called basilica, where courts of justice might sit for the decision of private affairs.

39. Campus Martius. The Campus Martius, or Field of Mars, was a large plain, without the city, along the Tiber, where the Roman youth practised all kinds of athletic exercises and sports, and learned the use of arms. It was adorned with the statues of famous men, and with triumphal arches, columns, porticos, and other magnificent structures.

THE MIDDLE AGES.

1. THE Middle Ages comprise a period of about a thousand years, from the 5th to the 15th century; or from the subversion of the Western Empire of the Romans to that of the Eastern Empire. During these centuries, Europe was sunk in ignorance, barbarism, and superstition; hence this period

is styled the Dark Ages.

2. The migration of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarous nations from the north of Europe, took place in the latter part of the 4th century, and the beginning of the 5th. These barbarians possessed themselves of the middle and south of Europe; and in less than one hundred years after this event, almost all learning and civilization disappeared. Literature had been gradually declining since the reign of Augustus; yet considerable remains of it existed in the Roman Empire till after the fall of the capital before the arms of the Goths. The darkest period was from the 6th century to the 12th.

3. In these dark and miserable times, the human mind was neglected and debased; books were extremely scarce, and were procured only at an immense price, the cost of a single volume being equal to that of a good house; the common people were wholly uneducated; many persons of the highest rank and in the most important stations, were unable to read; and contracts were made verbally for the want of persons capable of writing them. The learning which existed was confined chiefly to ecclesiastics and monks; yet many priests did not understand the service which it was their duty daily to recite; and many bishops had never seen a copy of the Bible during their lives.

4. The state of morals, both among the clergy and laity, was exceedingly low; and Christianity had lost almost all its original excellence, and was corrupted into a degrading su-

perstition The political state of Europe was also characterized by anarchy, violence, and rapine.

5. The absurd modes of trial by single combat or duel, and also by ordeal, that is, by walking blindfold over hot bars of iron, or being thrown into the water, were commonly used as

methods of discovering guilt and innocence.

6. The most considerable empire that existed in Europe during the Middle Ages, was the New Empire of the West, which was established by Charlemagne, but which was not of long duration. It was during these ages that the famous and successful impostor Ma'homet appeared, and the Mahometan or Saracen Empire flourished. From the 8th to the 13th centuries, the Saracens surpassed all their contemporaries in the cultivation of literature and science.

7. Some of the most remarkable circumstances which characterize the history of Europe and the state of society, during this period, are the *Feudal System*, the *Crusades*, and

Chivalry.

THE ARABS OR SARACENS.

1. Before the time of Ma'homet, the Arabians were a rude nation, living generally in independent tribes, who traced their descent from Ishmael, and professed a mixed religion, compounded of Judaism and idolatry. They had had, as a nation, but little intercourse with the neighboring kingdoms.

2. The Saracens, however, a people who inhabited the north-western part of Arabia, and whose name was afterwards applied to most of the Arabian nations, had, before this period, been induced, by the hope of plunder, to forsake their deserts, and had become alternately the support and terror of the tottering empires of Rome and of Persia. They sold their services, as mercenaries, to those who would pay most liberally, and their bravery generally insured victory.

3. Arabia had afforded an asylum to the persecuted Christians of different sects; and at the end of the 6th century, Christianity had become the prevailing religion in some parts of the country. It was, however, a most corrupt form of Christianity, inculcating the worship of saints and images, with many other absurd and superstitious ceremonies; and among both the priests and the people, a general depravity of

manners prevailed.

4. Such was the state of Arabia, when Ma'homet, or Moham'med, that most extraordinary and successful impostor, appeared. He was a native of Mecca, a man of no education, but of great natural talents. In 609, when about 40 years of age, he pretended to have received a divine commission to propagate a new religion. He withdrew to a place of retirement, where he affirmed that he held conferences with the angel Gabriel. These discourses were collected into a volume called the Koran or Alcoran, which is the Mahometan bible. Ma homet performed no miracles, but appealed chiefly to the excellence of the doctrine contained in the Koran, and to the elegance of its style, as proofs of its inspiration.

5. The two leading doctrines of his religion were these, namely, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet." He taught that others, at various times, as Abraham, Moses, and Jesus Christ, had been divinely commissioned to teach mankind; but that he himself was the last and greatest of the prophets. He adopted some of the morality of the gospel, and retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, particularly the pilgrimage to Mecca. But he owed his success, in a great measure, to his allowing his followers great latitude in licentious indulgences, and to his promising them, as their future reward, a paradise of sen-

sual pleasures.

6. He propagated his religion by the sword, stimulated the courage of his followers by inculcating the strictest predestinarianism or fatalism, and roused their enthusiasm by the assurance of a martyr's crown to every one who should fall in battle. It was inculcated as a fundamental doctrine, that "to fight for the faith was an act of obedience to God;" hence the Mahometans or Saracens denominated their fercious and bloody ravages holy wars.—They term their religion Islam or Islamism; and call themselves Mussulmans or Moslems, that is, true believers or orthodox.

7. Mahomet, in the beginning of his efforts, had but little success in making proselytes. His first converts were his wife *Kadija*, his slave *Zeid*, his cousin and son-in-law the famous *Ali*, and his father-in-law *Abu-beker*, who was a man of influence. These, together with ten others, were all whom he had persuaded to acknowledge the truth of his mission, at

the end of three years.

8. A popular tumult being raised against him at Mecca, he was compelled, in order to save his life, to escape; and he fled in disguise to Medi'na. His flight, or Hegira, is the

Mahometan era, corresponding to the year A. D. 622. He was carried into Medina in triumph, by 500 of its richest citizens, and there assumed the sacerdotal and regal office. He placed himself at the head of an army of his converts, and began to propagate his religion by the sword: having defeated his enemies, he entered his native city Mecca, in 629, as a triumphant conqueror. He fought in person nine battles, subdued all Arabia, extended his conquests to Syria, and after a career of victory, died at Medina, at the age of 63, ten years after his flight from Mecca to that city.

9. Ma'homet never hesitated to make use of the worst passions of his followers for the advancement of his purposes; and he had frequent recourse to the most wanton cruelty and the grossest perfidy, in the progress of his conquests. He was possessed of unbounded ambition; he affected the most enthusiastic devotion and ostentatious piety; and, with the exception of one species of licentiousness, in which he in dulged himself without restraint, he manifested a most rigid

austerity.

10. Ma'homet was succeeded by Abu-beker, who is styled the first caliph, a subordinate title, which was assumed from respect and in reference to Ma'homet, and which signifies, in Arabic, successor, or vicar. He continued the career of conquest, and with the aid of his general Caled, defeated a great army of the Greek emperor Herac'lius, took Damascus, and died in the third year of his reign. At his death he bequeathed the sceptre to the brave Omar. "I have no occasion for the place," said Omar; "But the place has occasion for you," replied the dying caliph.

11. Omar, with the assistance of his favorite general Obeidah, in one campaign, deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldea; and in a second campaign, he reduced to the Mussulman dominion and religion, the whole empire of Persia. His army, under Amrou, took

Alexandria, and subdued Egypt.

12. Amrou being requested to spare the Alexandrian library, wrote for directions respecting it to Omar, who returned the following answer, characteristic of an ignorant barbarian and fanatic: "If these writings agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed." The sentence was rigorously executed; and the whole library, said to contain from 500,000 to 700,000 volumes, was burnt. This was the greatest loss to literature that is recorded in history.

13. Omar, during a reign of 10 years, reduced 36,000 cities and villages to his obedience, demolished 4,000 Christian churches or temples, and erected 1,400 mosques for Mahometan worship. He was finally assassinated, and succeeded by Othman, who added Bactria'na and a part of Tartary, to the dominion of the caliphs. On his death, Ali, who had married Fat'ema, the daughter of Mahomet, was elected to the caliphate. He is reputed the bravest and most virtuous of the caliphs, and his reign was glorious, though of only five years' duration.

14. In the space of less than half a century, the Saracens raised an empire more extensive than what then remained of the Roman; and in 100 years from the flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, the dominions of his successors extended from India to the Atlantic, comprehending the widely distant regions of Persia, Syria, Asia Minor, Arabia, Egypt.

the North of Africa, and Spain.

15. The reign of Ali forms a remarkable era in the Mussulman history, on account of a schism which then arose, and which still exists. The partisans of Ali consider Abubeker, Omar, and Othman, as usurpers, and are branded by their adversaries with the name of Shiites or Sectaries. The opponents of Ali hold the first three caliphs in veneration; they style themselves Sonnites or Traditionaries, because they follow the traditions; whereas the Shiites acknowledge the Koran only. These two parties hate and anathematize each other. The Persians are of the sect of Ali; the Turks are Sonnites and Ottomans, or disciples of Othman.

16. Ali removed the seat of the Mussulman sovereigns from Mecca to Cufa, on the Euphrates; and in 768, it was removed by Almansor to Bagdad; hence they are styled caliphs of Bagdad. Next to the caliphate of Bagdad, the other caliphate most illustrious in Saracenic history, was that of Cordova in Spain. Walid, who reigned at Cufa in the fore part of the 8th century, was the first that founded a hospital, and built caravansaries or public inns, for the accommodation of

travellers.

17. The first race of caliphs were styled Ommi'ades, the first of whom was Moweiyah; of these 19 reigned in succession; after which began the dynasty of the Abbas'sides, who were descended from Abbas, the uncle of Mahomet. Almansor, the second caliph of this race, built Bagdad, and made it the seat of the Saracen empire, and it became the largest and most splendid city in the world. He was a liberal patron of

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learning and science; and it was he who first introduced the

cultivation of them among the Saracens.

18. The reign of Haroun al Raschid, the 25th caliph, who was contemporary with Charlemagne, was the most splendid of the whole dynasty, and is regarded as the Augustan age of Saracen or Arabic literature. This prince rendered himself illustrious by his valor, generosity, and benevolence; by his equitable government, and his patronage of learned men. It is to these times that a great part of our proverbs and romances must be referred; and the Thousand and one Nights have rendered Haroun al Raschid more celebrated than his victorious march through Asia. Schools of learning were, at this period, established in the principal towns. The sciences chiefly cultivated, were medicine, geometry, and astronomy: poetry and fiction also commanded attention. Some of the successors of Haroun al Raschid, particularly his son Al Mamun, followed his footsteps in patronizing learning. Literature was also successfully cultivated by the Saracens of Spain and Africa

19. From the time of the removal of the seat of government to Bagdad, the importance of Arabia began to decline. Many chiefs of the interior provinces rose to assert their independence, and withdrew themselves from the civil jurisdiction of the caliph, regarding him only as the head of their religion.

20. The Saracens might have established an immense empire, if they had acknowledged but one head; but as their conquests extended, their states soon became disunited. Spain, Egypt, Morocco, and India had, at an early period, their separate sovereigns, who continued to respect the caliph of Bagdad as the successor of the prophet, but acknowledged no

temporal subjection to his government.

21. The house of Abbas furnished 37 caliphs, who reigned in succession. Bagdad continued to be the seat of the Saracen empire 490 years, during which long period it sustained several obstinate sieges, and was the scene of many a bloody revolution. At length, in the 656th year of the Hegira, A. D. 1258, Bagdad was taken by Hulaku, the grandson of the celebrated Genghis Khan: the reigning caliph, Al Mostasem, was put to death; the caliphate was abolished, and the Saracen empire terminated.

22. The immediate successors of Mahomet found themselves under the necessity of affecting that enthusiastic devotion, and rigid austerity, by which he had established his

character as a prophet, and his power as a sovereign. All the time they could spare from the duties of royalty, was spent in prayer or preaching before the sepulchre of the impostor. Their manners were modest and unassuming; they affected great humility, practised various mortifications, and condescended to perform the meanest offices. Satisfied with the power of royalty, they affected to disdain its pomp. But when their power was confirmed beyond the fear of revolution, they forgot the real or affected virtues, which their predecessors had found it necessary to practise, and became distinguished for their oppression, their love of show and magnificence, their luxury and effeminacy.

23. As the caliphs succeeded to both the regal and sacerdotal offices which Mahomet had assumed, they were the most absolute monarchs in the world. No privileged order was recognized in the Saracen empire, to impose a salutary restraint on the will of the despots. The Koran was, indeed, prescribed as the rule of their actions, and it inculcated the duties of humanity and justice; but they were themselves the interpreters and judges of that code; nor did any Mussulman dare dispute their infallibility. Their office, uniting spiritual with temporal power, bore a striking resemblance to that of the popes; nor did the resemblance fail, with regard to pomp haughtiness, and oppression.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. The Feudal System had its origin among the barbarous nations, the Goths, Vandals, Huns, Lombards, &c., that overann the countries of Europe, on the decline of the Roman empire; but it is supposed to have received its earliest improvement among the Lombards. It was adopted by Charlemagne, and eventually by most of the princes of Europe; and it is generally believed to have been first introduced into England by William the Conqueror.

2. When the northern barbarians had made a conquest of the provinces of the Roman empire, the conquered lands were distributed by lot; hence they were called allotted or

allodial; and they were held in entire sovereignty by the different chieftains, without any other obligation existing between them, than that of uniting in case of war. for the common defence. The king or captain-general, who led on his respective tribes to conquest, naturally received by far the largest portion of territory for his own share; and his principal followers, to whom he granted lands, bound themselves merely to render him military services.

3. The example of the king was imitated by his courtiers, who distributed, under similar conditions, portions of their estates to their dependents. Thus a feudal kingdom became a military establishment, and had the appearance of a victorious army encamped under its officers in different parts of a country; every captain or baron considering himself independent of his sovereign, except during a period of na-

tional war.

4. Possessed of wide tracts of country, and residing at a distance from the capital, these barons or lords erected strong and gloomy castles or fortresses in places of difficult access; and not only oppressed the people, and slighted the civil magistracy of the state, but were often in a condition to set the

authority of the crown itself at defiance.

5. The fundamental principle of this system was, that all the lands were originally granted out by the sovereign, and were held of the crown. The grantor was called *lord*, and they to whom he made grants, were styled his *fcudatories* or vassals. As military service was the only burden to which the feudatories were subjected, this service was esteemed honorable, and the names of freeman and soldier were synonymous.

6. The great mass of the people who cultivated the lands, were styled serfs or villains, and were in a state of miserable servitude. They were not permitted to bear arms, nor suf-

fered to leave the estates of their lords.

7. The feudal government, though well calculated for defence, was very defective in its provisions for the interior order of society. A kingdom resembled a cluster of confederated states under a common head; and though the barons or nobles owed a species of allegiance to the king, yet when obedience was refused, it could be enforced only by war.

8. The bond of union being feeble, and the sources of discord innumerable, a kingdom often exhibited a scene of anarchy, turbulence, and war; and such was, in fact, the state of Europe, with respect to interior government, from the 7th

the 11th century.

9. Some of the principal causes of the gradual overthrow of the Feudal System, were the crusades, the formation of cities into communities with special privileges, the change of the mode of war which followed the invention of gunpowder, the extension of commerce, the increase and distribution of wealth, and the diffusion of knowledge. It still exists, however, in a qualified degree, in some parts of Europe, particularly in Russia and Poland, and in some portions of Germany.

THE CRUSADES.

1. The Crusades, or Holy Wars, were military expeditions, undertaken by the Christians of Europe, for the deliverance of Palestine, and particularly the sepulchre of our Savior, from the dominion of the Mahometans. These enterprises involved all the nations of Western Europe; yet in most of them the French took the lead. In 637, Jerusalem was conquered by the Saraceus, who were induced, by self-interest, to permit Christian pilgrims to visit the city. But when the Turks, a wild and ferocious tribe of Tartars, got possession of Jerusalem, in 1065, the pilgrims were no longer safe, but were exposed to insult and robbery. The dangers of pilgrimage, painted in the most frightful colors, by those who returned from the holy city, threatened the discontinuance of what was regarded, in that age of ignorance and superstition, a sacred duty.

2. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in France, having returned from a painful pilgrimage, conceived the design of arming the sovereigns and people of Europe, for the purpose of rescuing the holy sepulchre out of the hands of the infidels. With this view, he travelled from kingdom to kingdom, describing the sufferings of the pilgrims with the most inflammatory pathos, and calling aloud for vengeance. He exhibited, in his own person, a complete specimen of monkish austerity and frantic enthusiasm. His body, which was covered with a coarse garment, seemed wasted with fasting; his head was bare; his feet naked; he bore aloft in his hand a large and weighty crucihx; and his prayers were frequent long, and loud. He accosted every person whom he met, and entered, without hesitation, the palaces of the great, and

the cottages of the poor.

- 3. Urban II., the reigning pontiff, pitched upon this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design, which had before been entertained by the popes, particularly Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), of arming all Christendom against the Mahometans. The project was opened in two general councils, which were held at Placentia and Clermont, and attended by many thousands. The pope himself harangued the multitude, and proposed that the cross, which was made of red stuff attached to the right shoulder, should be the badge of the combatants; and from this badge the expeditions were termed crusades. Pienary indulgence and full absolution were proclaimed to all who should devote themselves to the service.
- 4. An immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with their dependents, eager for enterprise and rapine, and assured of eternal salvation, immediately took the cross. Robbers, incendiaries, murderers, and thousands of inferior offenders, readily embraced the opportunity of making expiation for their sins; and their zeal was increased by the hope of plunder and of sensual gratification. Peter the Hermit assumed the office of general, for which he was totally unqualified, and placing himself at the head of 80,000 recruits, commenced his march towards the East in the spring of 1096. This army was followed by a promiscuous assemblage of 200,000 persons, more like the collected banditti of Europe. than a regularly constituted soldiery The Jews of Germany were their first victims; but their outrages in Hungary and Bulgaria, drew upon them a severe retaliation from the inhabitants, so that not more than a third part of this undisciplined multitude arrived with Peter at Constantinople. These were met, by sultan Sol'yman, on the plain of Nice, and almost totally destroyed, without ever having seen Jerusalem.

5. But a more valuable part of the expedition was still in reserve, and soon after arrived at Constantinople. These were men properly trained and appointed, led by experienced and able generals. The supreme command was conferred on Godfrey of Bouillon, who was supported by Baldwin his brother, Robert, duke of Normandy (son of William the Conqueror of England), Hugh, count of Vermandois, Raymond, count of Thoulouse, and various other distinguished princes of Europe. When reviewed in the neighborhood of Nice, they amounted to 100,000 horse, and 600,000 foot, including

a train of women and followers.

6. Having taken Nice, and defeated Sol'yman, they proceeded eastward, conquered Edessa, took the city of Antioch.

vanquished an army of 600,000 Saracens, and being reduced to little more than a twentieth part of their original number, advanced to Jerusalem, which, after a siege of 40 days, was taken by storm; and the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants were barbarously massacred. The heroic Godfrey was proclaimed king of Jerusalem by the troops, and he soon after defeated the sultan with an immense army at Asealon; but after having reigned one year, he was compelled to give up his kingdom to the pope's legate.

7. The conquerors divided Syria and Palestine into four states; and seeing their object accomplished, they began to return to Europe. The Turks gradually recovered their strength; and the crusaders, who remained in Asia, finding themselves surrounded by foes, were under the necessity of soliciting aid from Christendom. An army of adventurers, collected by Hugh, the brother of Philip I. of France, met with a fate similar to that of the army under Peter the Hermit, being cut off in hostilities, first with the Greeks, and

afterwards with Solyman.

8. The second crusade was preached by the famous St. Bernard, in 1147; and Louis VII. of France, and Conrad III. of Germany, with 300,000 of their subjects, were persuaded to assume the cross. Conrad took the lead, but his army was almost entirely extirpated near Ico'nium; the French, under Louis, were totally defeated near Laodice'a; and the two monarchs, after witnessing the destruction of the finest armies which their countries had produced, returned with shame to their dominions.

9. The illustrious Sal'adin, who, about the year 1174, raised himself from the condition of an attendant of the caliphs, to the sovereignty of Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Persia, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the Christians. Having defeated their army in the battle of Tiberias, he besieged and took Jerusalem, and made its sovereign, Guy

of Lusignan, prisoner.

10. The reigning sovereigns of the principal states of Europe, Philip Augustus of France, Richard I. of England, and Frederic Barbarossa of Germany, were men of eminent talents; and by the influence of pope Clement III., they were induced to unite in a third crusade. The emperor Frederic was drowned in Cilicia, in crossing the small river Cydnus, and his army mostly destroyed. The English and French were more fortunate: they took Ptolema'is; but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country.

11. Richard ably sustained the contest with the sultam Saladin, whom he defeated near As'calon: but his army was teduced by famine, fatigue, and intestine quarrels. Returning through Germany, unaccompanied by his troops, he was arrested, and kept in prison, till an immense ransom was procured from his subjects. Before his departure from Syria, he had made a peace with Saladin, who soon after died.

12. Notwithstanding the misery which had been the uniform result of the crusades, such was the madness of the age, that fresh adventurers were ever ready to renew them. In 1202, during the pontificate of the ambitious pope Innecent III., Baldwin, count of Flanders, collected an army to act against the Mahometans in a fourth crusade; but he began, as others had done, with the eastern Christians. Arriving at Constantinople at a time when there was a dispute respecting the succession, his interference tempted one claimant to assassinate his rival, and Baldwin, after despatching the other by a public execution, and indulging his followers with the plunder of the city, took possession of the imperial throne of the Eastern Empire. Satisfied with this splendid acquisition, he attempted nothing against the Saracens.

13. John de Brienne, a French nobleman, at the head of 100,000 men, made a descent upon Egypt, with the design of destroying the power of its sultan at the seat of government. After a long siege, he took Damietta; but his army being subsequently surrounded by an inundation of the Nile, he was forced to give up his conquests, and surrender his person as a hostage.

14. The crusading fanaticism in Europe had, at length, begun to languish; but it was again revived by St. Louis IX. of France, a monarch alike distinguished for being deeply imbued with the superstition of the age, and for possessing every amiable and heroic virtue. After four years' preparation, he set out for the Holy Land, with his queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France.

15. He began his enterprise by invading Egypt, and after losing one half of his numerous army by sickness, he was uterly defeated and taken prisoner by the Saracens. Having ransomed himself and his followers, he proceeded to Palestine, where he remained for a considerable time, and then returning to France, he reigned wisely and prosperously for 13 years. But the same frenzy assailing him again, he embarked on another crusade against the Moors in Africa, and laid siege to Tunis, near which, he and the greater part of his army were destroyed by a pestilence. This was the last of these mad enterprises.

16 Effects of the Crusades. The crusades owed their origin to the fanaticism and superstition of an ignorant and barbarous age, superadded to ambition, love of military schievement, and a desire of plunder. No other military enterprise ever commanded the attention of Europe so generally or so long; and no other affords a more memorable monument of human folly. They assumed the sacred character of religion, and were styled Holy Wars. Their tracks marked the three quarters of the world, which were then known, with blood; and for nearly two centuries, they afflicted almost every family of Europe with the most painful pri-It is computed that during their continuance, more than two millions of Europeans were buried in the East. Those who survived were soon blended with the Mahometan population of Syria, and in a few years, not a vestige of the Christian conquest remained.

17. These barbarous expeditions, though productive of so much misery, had, nevertheless, a powerful influence in producing a great and beneficial change in the aspect of society. Their effects were observable, in a greater or less degree, on the political condition, the manners and customs, the commerce.

the literature, and the religion of Christendom.

18. At the commencement of the crusades, the Faudal System prevailed throughout Europe. The barons who engaged in them, were obliged to sell their lands, in order to procure the means of conveying their troops to a foreign country In this way the aristocracy was weakened, wealth more widely distributed, and the lower classes began to acquire property, influence, and a spirit of independence. Kings, likewise, raised money by selling to towns immunities and privileges, such as the right of electing their own magistrates, and being

governed by their own municipal laws.

19. In the ages immediately preceding the crusades, the manners and mode of life which prevailed in Europe, were gross and barbarous; and so, indeed, they continued for a long time after their termination; yet a gradual improvement was soon visible. Travelling in foreign countries has a tendency to enlarge the views, and polish the manners. In the East, particularly in Constantinople, the crusaders became, acquainted with modes of life superior to what they had been accustomed to in their own countries, and of which, on their return, they were ready to recommend the adoption. The crusades gave rise to various orders of knighthood, especially

those of St. John of Jerusalem, and the Templars. They imbued chivalry with religion, and brought it to maturity.

20. These enterprises had a most beneficial influence on commerce and the arts. Commerce had been carried on upon only a very limited scale; and European nations had never had their attention sufficiently drawn to the numerous advantages of water-transport, till the destructive disasters of the first crusaders, in attempting a march by land, forced upon the minds of their followers the expediency of conveying their troops by water. By the consequent frequency of voyages to Palestine, the arts of navigation and ship-building were rapidly improved; and from this period may be dated the commercial

prosperity of Pisa, Genoa, and Venice.

21. The crusades, although immediately injurious both to literature and religion, were, nevertheless, ultimately beneficial. They commenced at a time of the profoundest ignorance and the grossest superstition; (nearly all that remained of ancient art and science being, at that period, confined to Constantinople and the more enlightened of the Saracens;) during their continuance, military fame was the chief object of ambition to all who aspired to distinction; and that blind and fanatical devotion to the will of the priesthood, without which the people could never have been seduced into so wild an enterprise, continued undiminished. But after two centuries of disaster, Europe began to suspect the folly of these expeditions, and to doubt the infallibility of their promoters; and the human mind was gradually prepared for an emancipation from bigotry and servility.

22. It may be observed, that if, by the superintendence of Providence, these benefits to society grew out of the crusades, they were diametrically opposite to what their projectors intended; that these were results which they had neither the

wisdom to foresee, nor the virtue to design.

CHIVALRY.

1. Chivalry was an institution in which valor, gallantry, and religion were strangely blended. It constitutes one of the most remarkable features in the history of European nations in the Middle Ages; and, during several centuries, it produced a wonderful influence upon their opinions, habits,

and manners; the effects of which may still be traced. Its distinguishing features were a romantic spirit of adventure; a love of arms, and of the rewards of valor; an eagerness to succor the distressed, and to redress wrongs; high sentiments of honor and religion; and a devoted and respectful attach-

ment to the female sex.>

2. The early history of chivalry is involved in obscurity; and different theories have been formed with regard to the period, the nation, and the circumstances, to which it owed its origin. But the best supported account appears to be that which fixes its origin, as a regular institution, in the 11th century. Before this period, however, the great principles of it were to be found in the manners and customs of the Gothic nations, among whom the profession of arms was the only employment which was esteemed honorable, and who were distinguished for their delicate and respectful gallantry to the female sex. It was imbodied into form and regularity by the Feudal System; and was afterwards brought to maturity and splendor by the Crusades, and, by the change wrought upon it by these expeditions, was rendered as much a religious, as a military institution. Some improvements in it are supposed aleo to have been derived from the Saracens.

3. Chivalry pervaded almost all parts of Europe; yet Spain and France appear to have been the countries in which it was first regularly formed into a system, and where it flourished in its greatest purity and splendor. In Germany also, at an early period, it arrived at maturity; but in England it

was of later birth, and slower growth.

4. The sons of noblemen, who were destined for chivalry, entered, at the age of seven years, on a course of education, which was to prepare them for the performance of its duties, and the enjoyment of its honors. The place of their education was the castle of their father, or of some neighboring noble. From the age of 7 to 14, the appellation given to these boys was page or varlet; in old English ballads, child; and at 14 they were raised to the rank, and received the title of esquire, and were then authorized to bear arms.

5. They were kept in constant and active employment, and waited on the master and mistress of the castle at home and abroad, and became accustomed to obedience and courteous demeanor. They were surrounded by noble ladies and valiant knights; and the first impressions made on their minds were those of love, gallantry, honor, and bravery. They were taught to reverence chivalry as containing every thing that

was alluring and honorable; and that the only means of attaining the highest honors, were devotion to the female sex

and skill and courage in warfare.

6. By the ladies of the castle they were taught, at the same time, the rudiments of religion and love. "The lowe of Ged and the ladies," says Hallam, "was enjoined as a single duty. He who was faithful and true to his mistress, was held sure of salvation in the theology of the castles." In order that they might have opportunity to practise, in some degree, the instructions which they received, it was customary for each youth to select some young, accomplished, and virtuous lady, at whose feet he displayed all his gallantry, and who undertook to polish his manners.

7. The esquires were employed in various subordinate offices in the castles, and as attendants on the knights, till they arrived at 21, which was the proper age for admitting them to the full honors of knighthood. The candidate was required to prepare himself by ablutions, by rigid fasting, by passing the night in prayer, and by making a solemn confession of his sins; and, as a type of the purity of manners which would

be required of him, he was clothed in white.

8. Having performed the preliminary rites, he then entered a church, and after an examination, if he were judged worthy of admission to the order of knightheod, he received the sacrament, and took an oath, consisting of 26 articles, in which, among other things, he swore that he would be a good, brave, loyal, just, generous, and gentle knight, a champion of the church and the clergy, a protector of ladies, and a redresser of the wrongs of widows and orphans.

9. While upon his knees, he received from the hands of the knights and the ladies the insignia of chivalry, his spurs, cuirass, coat of mail, and the other parts of his armor, and, in the last place, his sword. The most distinguished chevalier then dubbed him, or bestowed on him the accolade, by giving him a slight blow on the shoulder or cheek with his sword, which has been interpreted as an emblem of the last

affront which it was lawful for him to endure.

10. The most important part of the equipments of a knight, was his horse; his distinguishing weapon was the lance; his other offensive arms consisted of a sword, dagger, battle-axe and maces. His dress consisted of a long flowing robe, which reached down to his heels.

11. "The virtues and endowments that were necessary to form an accomplished knight," says Dr. Henry, "in the

flourishing times of chivalry, were such as these;—beauty, strength, and agility of body; great dexterity in dancing, wrestling, hunting, hawking, riding, tilting, and every other manly exercise; the virtues of piety, chastity, modesty, courtesy, loyalty, liberality, sobriety; and above all, an inviolable

attachment to truth, and an invincible courage."

12. Such was the estimation in which knighthood was held, that, for a long time, no sovereign could be crowned till he had been knighted. Whoever had been dubbed became, as it were, a citizen of universal chivalry, and possessed various privileges and dignities, which were not limited to the territory of his sovereign, but extended throughout a great part of Europe. He had a right to roam through the world in quest of adventures, which, whether just or not in their purpose, were always esteemed honorable in proportion as

they were perilous.

13. He was authorized to propose a trial of skill with the lance to all those of his order whom he met, and to combat them with the utmost fury, if they did not acknowledge the lady to whom he had devoted himself, and whom they had never seen, the most beautiful in the world. When he challenged them to single combat, it was in the name of his mistress; and he established her unparalleled beauty by vanquishing his antagonist, and compelling him to acknowledge her superior charms. The portrait, the device, the livery, or even the most trifling gift of his mistress, he cherished with the utmost fondness. The crest of his helmet was ornamented with the favors which she had bestowed upon him. When the sovereign led his army to the attack, his never-failing injunction was, "Let every one think of his mistress."

14. The influence of chivalry was not limited to either sex. The manners of the ladies of rank were necessarily polite and courteous; for such they taught those of the chevaliers to be; and it was their highest ambition to deserve and obtain the love of a valiant knight. As the laws of the institution made it the duty of a knight to protect the chastity and honor of the ladies, and forbade his speaking ill of them, or tamely hearing them spoken ill of by others, it was incumbent on him to warn them against the commission of every thing

that might lower them in his opinion.

15. Strictly decorous and respectful in his behavior towards them, he expected they would never forfeit their claim to such behavior. If, however, they transgressed the laws of modesty or orudence, he did not fail to stigmatize their failings in a

way that would be keenly felt. If he passed the castle of one of this character, he marked, in such a manner as could not be mistaken, the dwelling of a lady unworthy to receive a true chevalier.

16. As the knights were ambitious to gain the esteem of the fair sex, by their heroic exploits, and the protection which they afforded them; so the ladies were ambitious to merit such protection by their virtue. In accordance with this is the language of Spenser:

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That, with the praise of arms and chivalry,
The prize of beauty still hath joined been;
And that for reason's special privity;
For either doth on other much rely;
For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
That can her best defend from villany;
And she most fit his service doth deserve,
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.

17. Chivalry especially enjoined the virtues of hospitality, humanity, and courtesy. Every true and loyal knight was expected to have the door of his castle constantly open. As soon as one chevalier entered the castle of another, he considered himself at home, and was treated as if he were so; every thing that could contribute to his comfort and his luxury, was at his command. If he arrived wounded, every possible care was taken of him by the ladies, both young and old, who were proud of having in their possession remedies proper for such occasions. To a vanquished foe the most scrupulous and delicate attention was paid: he was treated rather as a conqueror, than as one who had been conquered.

18. The favorite amusement and exercise of the knights consisted in justs and tournaments, the most splendid of which were celebrated at coronations, royal marriages, and distinguished victories. "Every scenic performance of modern times," says Hallam, "must be tame in comparison of these animating scenes. At a tournament, the space inclosed within the lists was surrounded by sovereign princes and their noblest barons, by knights of established renown, and all that rank and beauty had most distinguished among the fair. Covered with steel, and known only by their emblazoned shields, or by the favors of their mistresses, a still prouder bearing, the combatants rush d forward to a strife without enmity, but not without danger.

19. "Victory at a tournament was little less glorious, and perhaps at the moment, more exquisitely felt, than in the

field; since no battle could assemble such witnesses of valor. 'Honor to the sons of the brave!' resounded, amidst the din of martial music, from the lips of the minstrels, as the cenqueror advanced to receive the prize from his queen or his mistress; while the surrounding multitude acknowledged, in his prowess of that day, an angury of triumphs that might, in more serious contests, be blended with those of his country."

20. Absurd and ridiculous as the institution of chivalry appears, yet it had a powerful influence in producing a favorable change in the manners of society in a barbarous age; and was wonderfully adapted to the taste and genius of martial nobles. It infused humanity into war, at a time when the disposition of the age made it almost the constant business of life, and the ruling passion of persons of every rank: it introduced courtesy of manners, when men were rude and uncultivated: it exacted and produced a scrupulous adherence to truth, at a time when its obligations were feebly felt, and the temptations to falsehood were numerous: it imparted an additional impulse and motive to a respectful and delicate attention to the female sex, when such attention was particularly necessary to them.

As chivalry rose to splendor, and was imbodied into form, by the feudal system, so it fell along with it. The invention of gunpowder, and the consequent change in the mode of war; the invention of the art of printing, and the diffusion of knowledge; the extension of commerce, and the increase and distribution of wealth, gradually produced the destruction of the feudal system, and put a period to the existence of chivalry. It arose principally from the peculiar state of society, the evils of which it was calculated, in some degree, to remove or alleviate; it fell when that state of society and those evils had given way to the general diffusion of

wealth and of knowledge.

22. "The wild exploits of those romantic knights," says Dr. Robertson, "who sallied forth in quest of adventures, are well known, and have been treated with proper ridicule. The political and permanent effects of the spirit of chivalry have been less observed. Perhaps the humanity which accompanies all the operations of war, the refinements of gallantry, and the point of honor, the three chief circumstances which distinguish modern from ancient manners, may be ascribed, in a great measure, to this whimsical institution, seemingly of little benefit to mankind. The sentiments which chivalry inspired had a wonderful influence on the

manners and conduct during the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries. They were so deeply rooted, that they continued to operate after the vigor and reputation of the institution itself

began to decline."

23. But the actual morals of chivalry were by no means pure: its principles, like those of other institutions, were much superior to the practice of its professors: and it fell far short of establishing and preserving that purity in the intercourse of the sexes, which it inculcated. The poetry of the Troubadours, and the tales and romances which describe the manners of chivalry, all afford evidence of dissolute morals.

24. The knights professed to redress wrongs, to relieve the oppressed, and to protect the defenceless; but in performing these very acts, they were not unfrequently guilty of the grossest injustice and violence. Chivalry nourished a pernicious thirst for military renown, and cherished a love of war, founded more on feelings of personal resentment, than on those of public spirit. It, indeed, taught mankind to carry the civilities of peace into the operations of war, and to mingle politeness with the use of the sword; but it also gave birth to a punctilious refinement, and sowed the seeds of that fantastic honor, the bitterness of whose fruits is still felt in the modern practice of duelling.

25. The origin of the duel is traced to the Gothic nations. Under the feudal system, and during the age of chivalry, the duel was warmly patronized. It so far prevailed among the Germans, Danes, and Franks, that none were exempted from it but women, sick people, cripples, and such as were under 21 years of age, or above 60. Even ecclesiastics, priests, and manks, were obliged to find a champion to fight in their

stead.

26. Laws and regulations were defined for it, in most of the kingdoms of Europe; forms of prayer were likewise prescribed; and the combatants prepared themselves by taking the sacrament. It was then resorted to as a method of discovering truth and preventing perjury, with the belief of the interference of Providence for the punishment of the guilty, and the protection of the innocent. It is now practised as a mode of private revenge; and its use is no longer supported by any plea derived from reason, religion, or superstition.

MODERN HISTORY.

1. DIFFERENT periods, as has already been mentioned, have been adopted by different historians for the commencement of Modern History, as the Christian era, the downfall of the Western Empire of the Romans, the establishment of the New Empire of the West under Charlemagne, and (when considered as distinct from the history of the Middle Ages) the downfall of the Eastern Empire.

2. But in treating of the history of the several European states, the most convenient method is to begin with the commencement of each respectively, without being confined to any one common period. No one of the present sovereignties of Europe, with the exception of France, traces its origin, by any authentic data, further back than the commencement

of the 9th century.

3. The period that succeeded the downfall of the Eastern Empire, is one of the most important and interesting in the history of man. On casting an eye back to this period, we see a flood of light suddenly bursting upon the world; mankind waking, as from profound sleep, to a life of activity and bold adventure; ignorance, barbarism, superstition, and feudal slavery, retreating before advancing civilization, knowl-

edge religion, and freedom.)

4. Some of the principal causes which produced the great and beneficial changes in the state of society which then took place, were the invention of the mariner's compass, of gunpowder, and of the art of printing; the discovery of America, and of a maritime passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope; the dispersion of the literary men of Constantinople to the western parts of Europe, and the Reformation in religion.

5. In the history of European commerce, the association of the *House Towns* holds a conspicuous place. This asso-



ciation, which commenced in the 13th century, eventually embraced most of the great commercial towns in Europe, and was in its most flourishing state in the 14th and 15th centuries.

6. From the time of the crusades to the 15th century, the Italians, more especially the citics of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, had the chief management of European commerce. In the maritime discoveries, and the commercial enterprise of the 15th and 16th centuries, Portugal and Spain took the lead; and on the discovery of a passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, the commerce of Europe was turned into new channels, and the Italian cities declined.

7. Spain and Portugal have long since lost their former comparative rank in commerce, wealth, and power. They were succeeded in maritime enterprise and activity by the Netherlands, Holland, and England, which became, in turn,

the most commercial states in Europe.

S. The most powerful monarchies in Europe, at the present time, are England, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia; the last three of which are comparatively very modern. The history of England is to Americans more important than that of any other European country; and next to that in importance, is the history of France.



FRANCE.

SECTION I.

Merovingian Kings: Carlovingian Kings: Charlemagne, Syc.—From A. D. 420 to 987.

1. The history of France and that of England are intimately connected, as they have, for many centuries, been rival states, and, during a great part of the time, engaged in war with each other. The kings of England, for a long time, assumed also the title of king of France, as they held possessions in that country, more or less extensive, from the time

of William the Conqueror to that of queen Mary.

2. The ancestors of the modern French were the Gauls or Celts, an enterprising and warlike people; and it has been frequently remarked, that there is a striking similitude between the descendants and their progenitors. Ancient Gaucomprehended, in addition to modern France, the Netherlands, and the western part of Germany. It was conquered and annexed to the Roman empire by Julius Casar, 51 years before the Christian era. It received its modern name from the Franks, who were originally a German tribe, inhabiting the districts on the Lower Rhine and the Weser, and who assumed the appellation of Franks, or Freemen, from their union to resist the dominion of the Romans.

3. The Franks made an irruption into Gaul about the year 420, under their leader Pharamond, who is said to have been succeeded by Clodion, Merovæ'us, Childeric, and Clovis. The first race of the French kings is styled Merovingian, from Merovæus; but the authentic history of the monarchy commences in 481, with his grandson Clovis, who is regarded as its real founder, and who achieved the conquest of France, by several victories over the Romans, the Alemanni, and the Visigoths, and by marrying Clotilda, a Christian princess, and daughter of the king of Burgundy. In consequence of this marriage, Clovis and his subjects embraced Christianity. He made Paris the seat of his government, and published the Salic laws, excluding females from the throne.

4. The Merovingian kings, who were generally weak sovereigns, continued to possess the throne till 751. In 690, Pepin d'Heristel, mayor of the palace, the first officer under

the crown, acquired the chief control, which he retained for many years; and left it to his son Charles Martel, who gained a great victory over the Saraocus, between Tour Roic tiers, and who was succeeded in office by his son repin Bref, or the Short, so called from his low stature, being only

four and a half feet high."

5. Pepin governed France while the weak Childeric III. was nominally king; and being a man of talents and ambition, he proposed the question to pope Zachary, whether he himself or Childeric was the best entitled to the crown. Zachary, from interested motives, decided in favor of Pepin, who was accordingly crowned at Soistons, by St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz, and became the founder of the second or Carlovingian race of French kings. Pepin recompensed the services done him by the pope, by turning his arms, during the pontificate of St. phen II., who succeeded Zachary, against the Lombards in Italy, and by granting the exarchate of Ravenna and other territories to the see of Rome. In this manner the pope was raised to the rank of a temporal prince.

6. Pepin was succeeded by his two sons, Charles and Carloman; but the latter dying not long after the death of his father, Charles possessed the undivided sovereignty. This distinguished monarch is known in history by the name of Charlemagne or Charles the Great. Notwithstanding the diminutive stature of his father, he is said to have been seven feet in height, of a robust constitution, and majestic appear-

ance.

7. Charlemagne was far the greatest monarch of his age, and distinguished both as a conqueror and a statesman. He was engaged in war during most of his reign had a long and bloody contest with the Saxons, put an end to the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, by defeating Desiderius or Didier, their last sovereign, and made extensive conquests; but he sustained a great defeat by the Spaniards, at Roncesvalles In 800 he was crowned Emperor of the West, by the pope His emp're comprised France, the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, a great part of Italy, and part of Spain. He had no permanent capital, though Aix-la-Chapells was, for a long time, his favorite residence.

8. Charlemagne was a luminary in a dark age, and an eminent patron of learning. "He stands alone," says Hallam, "like a beacon upon a waste, or a rock in the broad ocean." His court was frequented by Alcuin and other learned men; and he endeavored to dispel the profound

ignorance which generally prevailed. He manifested his zeal for religion by compelling those whom he subdued to receive Christian baptism, on the pain of being either made slaves or of suffering death. Succeeding generations, impressed with a grateful sense of the services which he rendered to the church, canonized his memory, and turned this bloody warrior into an eminent saint.

9. His private character, though stained with vices, exhibited many estimable qualities. On days of ceremony, he made a great display of luxury and splendor in his apparel; but at other times he was plain in his dress, and frugal in regard to his table. The economy of his family was characteristic of an age of great simplicity. He superintended his farms, and trained his sons himself to manly exercises: the women belonging to his court made use of the needle, and managed the distaff; and he took delight in appearing ornamented with

the productions of his wife and daughters.

10. Charlemagne was succeeded by his son Louis the Debonair, or the Mild, whose reign was inglorious and turbulent, and who divided his dominions among his sons. The quarrels of the rival brothers, which commenced before the death of their father, involved their subjects in a sanguinary war, and the family contest was decided in a great battle on the plains of Fontenay, where no less than 100,000 men are said to have fallen, and most of the ancient nobility of France perished. A new division of the empire followed; Charles the Bald receiving the western part of France, termed Aquitaine and Neustria; Lothaire, Italy and some of the southern provinces of France; and Louis, Germany. During the reign of Charles, the Normans, from Scandinavia, commenced their invasions of France, and burnt Paris.

11. Charles, after a weak and inglorious reign, was succeeded by his son Louis the Stammerer, who, in order to insure tranquillity to his estates, made numerous grants of lands, titles, and offices to his nobles and bishops. After a short reign, he left his kingdom to his two sons, Louis III. and Carloman. After the death of these princes, the emperor Charles the Fat was elected to the vacant throne; but he governed with so much imbecility, that he was soon dethroned, and the imperial dignity, was transferred to Germany.

12. The nobility gave the crown to Eudes, till Churles the Simple should attain to the age of manhood; and on the death of the former, the latter was raised to the throne; but he was deposed by Robert, the brother of Eudes; and Robert

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was succeeded by his son-in-law Rodolph. During the reign of Charles the Simple, the Normans, under Rollo, invaded and took Neustria, and established themselves in the country,

which from them was named Normandy.

13. During the succeeding reigns of Louis IV. and Lothare, Hugh the Great, the most powerful nobleman in France, obtained the chief direction of the government; and in the reign of Louis V., he was succeeded in his authority by his son, Hugh Capet, who, on the death of Louis, placed himself upon the throne, and founded the third or Capetian race of French kings.

SECTION II.

Capetian Kings, from Hugh Capet to Philip VI. of Valois

—From A. D. 987 to 1328.

1. Hugh Capet, an able and politic sovereign, added considerable territories to the kingdom, and made Paris his capital. He was succeeded by his son Robert, who was commanded by the pope to divorce his queen Bertha, because she was his cousin in the fourth degree. But he refused to comply, and was excommunicated. He was, in consequence, reduced to the most abject condition, being abandoned by all his courtiers, as a person infected with the plague; and was finally compelled to submit.

2. The quiet of his son and successor Henry I. was disturbed by the hostile designs of his unnatural mother, Constantia. During his reign a law was enacted, called the truce of God, prohibiting private combats between Thursday and Sunday. This was all that the ecclesiastical and civil power united, could, in this age, do to check the general rage for

duelling.

3. The reign of *Philip I.*, the successor of Henry, was signalized by the first *crusade*, preached by *Peter the Hermit*; and by the invasion of France by William the Conqueror, of England. From this event may be dated the long-continued rivalship and hostility between the *French* and *English* monarchies, which form a leading feature in their history during several centuries.

4. Louis VI., surnamed the Fat, the son of Philip, was at able and accomplished sovereign, and had a prosperous and useful reign. On his death-bed he addressed his son, who

succeeded him, in the following words: "Remember that royalty is nothing more than a public charge, of which you must render a very strict account to him who makes kings,

and who will judge them."

5. Louis VII., surnamed the Young, having been educated in an abbey, was zealous for the religion of the age. The abbeys, at this period, produced some eminent men, among whom were Suger, abbot of St. Denis, a great politician; St. Bernard, abbot of Clairvaux, famous for his eloquence and znal; and Abelard, celebrated for his genius, and his learning in scholastic theology, and not less so for his unfortunate love for Louisa or Heloise.

6. A civil war was excited on account of the refusal of Louis to assent to the choice of an archbishop, who was supported by the pope. The king entered the town of Vitry at the head of a large army, and caused the parochial church, in which the rebellious inhabitants had taken refuge, to be set on fire, and 1,300 persons perished in the flames. The remorse which Louis felt for this act of cruelty and sacrilege, gave rise to the second crusade, which was preached by St. Bernard.

7. Louis had married *Eleanor*, heiress of the great duchy of Guienne, whom he divorced for her levities and vices; and in six weeks, she married Henry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, who became, the next year, *Henry II*. of England, and who, by this marriage, acquired a great addition to his

possessions in France.

8. Philip II., surnamed Augustus, on account of his exploits, surpassed, in systematic ambition and military enterprise, all the sovereigns who had reigned in France since the time of Charlemagne. He signalized the commencement of his reign by a tyrannical act, in confiscating the property of the Jews in France, and banishing them from his dominions; he soon after joined Richard I. of England in the third crusade.

9. John, who succeeded Richard in the throne of England, was suspected of having murdered his nephew Arthur; and for this Philip summoned him, as his vassal, to be tried by a court of his peers; but John, refusing to obey the summons, was declared guilty of felony, and his possessions were con fiscated. Philip invaded Normandy with his troops, and in a short time the king of England lost all his territories in France, with the exception of Guienne.

10. Philip, who left his kingdom about twice as large as be found it, was succeeded by his son Louis VIII., who was

surnamed the Lion, on account of his valor, and whose short reign was chiefly distinguished by a barbarous crusade against

the Albigenses.

11. Louis IX., commonly called Saint Louis, succeeded to the throne at the age of 12 years, and during his minority, his mother, Blanche of Castile, filled the office of regent with great firmness and courage. St. Louis was distinguished for his uprightness, benevolence, and piety, and with regard to the purity of intention, has, perhaps, scarcely been excelled by any sovereign that ever sat on a throne; and his long reign was, in many respects, highly beneficial to his country. His principal weakness was superstition, which almost effaced the good effects of his virtues, and which prompted him to engage in two disastrous crusades, in the second of which he died near Tunis.

19. St. Louis was succeeded by his son Philip III., surnamed the Hardy or Bold, because, when a prisoner with his father in Africa, he had the boldness to punish a soldier who treated him with insolence; or, as others say, because he extricated the remains of the army in Africa, and brought the crusade, which was undertaken by his father, to a favorable issue. During this reign, an insurrection took place in Sicily, which was occasioned by the tyranny of Charles of Anjou, uncle of Philip, who had recently become king of that island; and 8, or 10,000 Frenchmen were massacred, on the evening of Easter-day, a transaction called the massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.

13. Phihip IV., surnamed the Fair, from the beauty of his countenance and the elegance of his person, was distinguished for his ambition, dissimulation, perfidy, and cruelty, and was engaged in continual contests. By endeavoring to raise money from the clergy, as well as from his other subjects, he was involved in a quarrel with the ambitious and haughty pope Boniface VIII., who prohibited the clergy from paying the assessment, laid France under an interdict, and issued a bull, declaring "that the Vicar of Christ is vested with full

authority over the kings and kingdoms on the earth."

14. The arrogant pontiff died during the contest, and Philip managed to get Clement V., a Frenchman devoted to his interests, elected his successor, and transferred the seat of the papacy from Rome to Avignon, where it continued 70 years. This removal greatly exasperated the Italians, who, in consequence, became hostile to the pope, and styled his residence at Avignon, "The Babylonish captivity of the Holy See."—

The fraternity of Knights Templars, a religious and military order of great wealth, was abolished by Philip, and their property confiscated; but a measure more creditable to him was

Lis instituting parliaments.

15. Philip was succeeded by his son Louis X., surnamed Hutin, that is, the Stubborn, or Wrangler, whose short reign was signalized by the execution of his prime minister Marigni for pretended crimes, but, in reality, for his wealth. Philip V., the Long, on the death of John I., the infant son of Philip IV., succeeded to the throne. His reign is noted chiefly for a barbarous massacre and banishment of the Jews, who were accused of having poisoned the wells and fountains of water. His successor, Charles IV. the Fair, was the last of three brothers, whose reigns were all short, and who were always necessitous in respect to their finances, and little scrupulous with regard to their methods of improving them.

SECTION III.

Branch of Valois:—Philip VI.; John II.; Charles V., Charles VI.; Charles VII.; Louis XI.; Charles VIII.— From A. D. 1328 to 1498.

1. Philip the Fair left three sons, Louis Hutin, Philip the Long, and Charles the Fair, who were all successively kings of France, but who all died without leaving any male heirs, and one daughter, Isabella, queen of England, and mother of Edward III. On the death of Charles the Fair, the male succession to the throne devolved on Philip VI. of Valois, Charles's cousin-german; and his title was universally ac-

knowledged and supported by the French nation.

2. But Edward III. of England was a nearer relative on the female side, and he asserted his claim in right of his mother. This claim gave rise to those contests for the French crown by the kings of England, which are so famous in the history of both countries. Edward invaded France with an army of 30,000 men, in order to enforce his claim, gained the famous battle of Cressy, and besieged and took Calais.—In the midst of these misfortunes, Philip had the satisfaction of seeing Dauphiny annexed to the crown of France, by Hubert, the last count, on condition that the king's eldest son should bear the title of Dauphin.

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3. Philip was succeeded by his son John II., surnamed the Good, who was still more unfortunate than his father, being utterly defeated by the English under the Black Prince, near Poictiers, and carried a prisoner to London, where he died.

4. During the captivity of John, the kingdom was thrown into the greatest disorder and confusion; but soon after his son Charles V., surnamed the Wise, accended the throne, the condition of the country began to improve. This distinguished sovereign resolved to make France a match for England; and, in order to effect this object, he deemed it necessary to restore tranquillity to the people, and inspire them with confidence in the government. He raised to the office of constable of France the celebrated Du Guesclin, who was one of the greatest generals of the age, though he could neither read nor write. The French, under his command, drove into Spain the banditti that had ravaged the country, routed Charles, king of Navarre, and expelled the English from all their possessions in France, except Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Calais.

5. Charles was one of the best sovereigns that have sat on the throne of France; a sagacious statesman, a beneficent lawgiver, a patron of literature, and an excellent man in his private character. His father left him a library of only 20 volumes; to which he added 900, which rendered it one of the greatest libraries then in the world, and was an immense number for that period, when printing was not yet invented. Charles may be regarded as the founder of the magnificent

royal library of which Paris is now proud.

6. This eminent sovereign was succeeded by his son Charles VI., styled the Well-beloved, a weak prince, subject to insanity, which, at last, reduced him almost to an idiot. His life and his reign were alike miserable, and all the fruits of the wisdom of his father's government were soon lost. His queen, Isabella of Bavaria, was of most infamous character, and the court was notorious for profligacy. The kingdom was governed by a succession of regents, whose misconduct occasioned seditions and rebellions.

7. During this calamitous state of France, Henry V. of England invaded the country, gained the memorable victory of Agincourt, and after obtaining other advantages, he concluded the treaty of Troyes, by which his succession to the throne, on the death of Charles, was acknowledged. Henry

and Charles both died soon after this transaction.

8. Charles VII., afterwards surnamed the Victorious, son of Charles VI., asserted his right to the crown; and the infant

Henry VI. of England was also proclaimed king of France under the regency of his uncle the duke of Bedford. The English undertook the siege of Orleans, a place of the utmost importance, and pushed their designs so successfully, that the affairs of Charles seemed almost desperate, when they were suddenly restored by one of the most marvellous transactions recorded in history.

9. An obscure country girl, 27 years of age, who had lived in the humble station of a servant at an inn, overthrew the power of England. This was that wonderful heroine, Joan of Arc, otherwise called the Maid of Orleans, who appeared at this juncture, pretending to be divinely commissioned to deliver her oppressed country, and promising to raise the siege of Orleans, and to conduct the king to Rheims to

be crowned.

10. Her mission was pronounced by an assembly of divines, to be supernatural; and, at her own request, she was armed cap-a-pie, dressed like a man, mounted on horseback, entered Orleans at the head of the French troops, and actually compelled the English to raise the siege. Charles, in obedience to her exhortations, proceeded to Rheims, which was then in possession of the English, entered it without difficulty, and was there crowned. Joan then declared that her mission was ended, and requested leave to retire; but her presence was thought still necessary, and being detained, she afterwards fell into the hands of the English, who condemned her for witchcraft, and caused her to be burnt alive at Rouen.

11. The French gained further victories, and the English were finally expelled from all their possessions in the country, except Calais. Charles now directed his attention to the improvement of the internal condition of his kingdom, and was a useful and popular sovereign. The latter part of his life was imbittered by the undutiful and rebellious conduct of his son, the dauphin, by whom he was in such fear of being poisoned, that he is said to have died through want of suste-

nance.

12. Louis XI., who was an odious compound of dissimulation, profligacy, cruelty, and superstition, is sometimes styled the Tiberius of France; yet he obtained from the pope the title of Must Christian, a title still annexed to the name of the French kings. He possessed, however, considerable talents, great application to business, and affability to his inferiors; and he was the author of many wise laws and excellent regu-

lations for the encouragement of commerce, and for promot-

ing the administration of justice.

13. It was his policy to humble the nobles, who formed a confederacy against him, and engaged in a contest to preserve their authority, entitled "the war of the public good." The barbarity of the public executions during his reign, is almost incredible: his own life was rendered miserable, especially towards its close, by the knowledge of his being generally hated, and by the torments and terrors of a guilty conscience.

14. Charles VIII., the son of Louis, succeeded to the throne, at the age of 13 years. He was mild in his disposition, and courteous in his manners, and received the surname of the Affable or Civil. His father had acquired a claim to the kingdom of Naples; and on coming of age, he engaged in an expedition for the conquest of that country, which was easily accomplished; but the possession of it was soon lost.

SECTION IV.

Louis XII.; Francis I.; Henry II.; Francis II.; Charles IX.; Henry III.—From A. D. 1498 to 1589.

- 1. Charles VIII., who was the last of the direct line of the house of Valois, was succeeded by Louis XII., Duke of Orleans, great-grandson of Charles V. He was a beneficent and popular sovereign, though injudicious and unfortunate in his enterprises. Being frugal in his policy, he diminished the taxes and burdens of his subjects; and gained the title of "the Father of his People." He retained the ministers of the late king in office, even those who had treated him ill before he came to the throne. "It is unworthy of the king of France," said he, "to punish the injuries done to the duke of Orleans."
- 2. Near the commencement of his reign, he reduced Milan and Genoa, and afterwards prosecuted his claim to Naples; but though, by the aid of his generals, the celebrated Chevelier Bayard and Gaston de Foix, he obtained some ad vantages, he was ultimately unsuccessful, and became the dupe of his allies, Ferdinand of Spain, and the infamous pope Alexander VI.; and the former, by treachery, got possession of the whole of Naples.

3. At this period, the republic of Venice, on account of its wealth, acquired by commerce, excited the envy and jeal ousy of its neighbors, particularly of the politic and ambitious pope Julius II., who projected against it the famous League of Cambray, which was composed of the pope, the emperor of Germany, and the kings of France and Spain. Louis entered with spirit into the war against Venice, and gained the famous victory of Agnadello. But the confederates afterwards quarrelled with each other, and a new league was formed against France.

4. The French, under the command of Gaston de Foir, gained a victory over the new confederates at Ravenna. but it cost them the life of their commander. The death of this celebrated hero was fatal to Louis, for he soon afterwards lost all the places which he possessed in Italy, and was compelled to evacuate the country. In the midst of his preparations to recover these losses, Louis died suddenly, and the exclamation of "The good king is dead," was heard on

every side.

5. Francis I., Duke of Angouléme, and nephew of Louis XII., succeeded to the throne at the age of 21 years. He was of a romantic turn, fond of war, and eager for glory; he departed from the frugal maxims of his predecessor, and soon distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese.

6. In 1519, on the death of *Maximilian*, emperor of Germany, *Francis* and *Charles V*. (who was then king of *Spain*) became rival candidates for the imperial crown. Francis, speaking with Charles respecting the object of their competition, said, with his natural vivacity and frankness; "We are suitors to the same mistress; the more fortunate will win her, but the other must remain contented."

7. Charles was the successful candidate; and Francis, whose heart was too much set upon the prize to lose it with quiet feelings, retired disappointed, and thirsting for revenge. The two rivals were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility, during nearly the whole of their long reigns.

S. The reign of *Charles V*. forms a distinguished period in history,—memorable not only for the wars and contests among the states of Europe; but still more so for the estab-

lishment of the Reformation, the advancement of literature, the extension of commerce, and the impulse given to the progress of society. Charles was the greatest sovereign of the age, and superior to his rival Francis both in policy and power. Other distinguished sovereigns of the same age, were Henry VIII. of England, who was courted by both of the rival monarchs, and, in some degree, involved in their wars; Solyman the Magnificent, sultan of Turkey, a formidable enemy of Charles; Gustavus Vasa of Sweden; and Pope Leo X.

9. In the contest between the two rivals, the first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre, which was won and lost in the space of a few months. The emperor attacked Picardy, and his treops, at the same time, drove the French out of the Milanese. Francis quarrelled with his best general, the constable of Bourbon, who, in revenge, deserted to the emperor, and was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The French king marched into Italy with great success, and laid siege to Pavia; but was here defeated by Bourbon, and taken prisoner.

10. Francis was detained some time at Madrid by Charles, who compelled him to comply with disadvantageous terms of peace. After being set at liberty, and having passed the boundaries between Spain and France, he mounted his horse, and waving his hand over his head, exultingly exclaimed, several times, "I am yet a king." Charles had not treated him with generosity, having extorted from him more promises than a king, restored to freedom, would be likely to perform, and more than his subjects would assent to. The violations of this treaty occasioned, between the two sovereigns, insulting challenges and new wars.

11. After war had been prosecuted with various success, a truce was at length agreed upon, and a circumstance took place, which brought the rival monarchs, who had been engaged 20 years in hostilities with each other, to a personal interview at Aigues Mortes, in the south of France. On meeting, they vied with each other in expressions of respect and friendship. The next year, Charles obtained permission of Francis to pass through France on his way to the Netherlands, and was entertained, during a stay of six days in Paris,

with great magnificence.

12. Charles having afterwards refused to give up Milan to France, as he had promised, the war was again renewed with redoubled animosity; Lut its final issue, as had usually been

the case, was unfavorable to the designs of the king of France, who died immediately after the restoration of peace.

13. Though Francis was engaged in war during the whole of his reign, and was unsuccessful in his projects, yet he left his kingdom in a flourishing condition. He was a patron of literature and the arts, which made great progress in France during his reign; and at this period, the French court acquired much of that external polish and refinement, for which it has been since distinguished.

14. Francis possessed, in a high degree, those qualities which captivate the multitude; impetuous courage, great decision, and activity of mind, a frank disposition, and a generous heart: and there was a polish about his manners, an amiableness about his more common actions and his mode of performing them, and a delicacy and strictness of honor about his whole conduct, which characterize a finished gentleman. Yet he was far from being actuated by a sense of justice and good faith in his public character; nor were his private morals free from reproach. He formed his plans with too little deliberation, and was wanting in perseverance. It was his misfortune to contend with a rival, who was more than a match for him in policy and resources.

15. Henry II., the son and successor of Francis, was brave, affable, and polite, in some respects resembling his father, yet possessing far less talent, and easily governed by favorites. His reign, which was 13 years in duration, was spent in war chiefly with Charles V., and his son Philip II. of Spain. Charles sustained a great loss at the siege of Metz; but Philip obtained over Henry the famous victory of St. Quentin, in commemoration of which he built the palace of the Escurial.

16. This war, the success of which had not been much to the satisfaction of either party, was terminated by the treaty of *Chateau Cambresis*. The reign of Henry was signalized by the recovery of *Calais* from the English, and by the increase of those persecutions of the *Calvinists* or *Protestants*, often also called *Huguenots*, which had been begun in the reign of his father, and which gave rise to the civil wars which distracted France during the three succeeding reigns.

17. The successor of Henry II. was his son Francis II. the first husband of Mary, afterwards queen of Scots, who died after a reign of one year, and was succeeded by his brother Charles IX., then a boy only ten years old, who had for

his guardian his mother, Catharine de Medicis, an ambitious and unprincipled woman.

18. At this time, the Protestant religion had spread extensively in France, and was professed by some men of great influence at court, among whom were the *Prince of Condé*

and Admiral Coligni.

19. At the head of the Catholics was the ambitious family of the Guises, consisting of five brothers, the most prominent of whom were the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine, who were leading men in the government. To the intolerance and cruelty of this family, the Protestants attributed all their calamitics; and the conspiracy of Amboise was formed for the destruction of the Catholic leaders. It was, however, discovered, and about 1,200 conspirators were massacred and executed.

20. After the famous conference held at *Poissy*, for discussing the points in dispute between the Catholics and Protestants, an edict was published, granting liberty to the latter to exercise their worship without the walls of towns. But this edict being soon violated, both parties flew to arms, and commenced the sanguinary civil war, which, for a long time, harassed the kingdom.

21. The Catholics, under the command of Guise and Montmorency, defeated the Protestants, commanded by Condé and Coligni, in several engagements; but the latter were still powerful, and obtained conditions of peace, which granted

them toleration.

22. The king and his court now had recourse to stratagem and treachery. The Protestants were treated with the greatest marks of favor, and on the occasion of the marriage of the king of Navarre with the sister of Charles, they were allured to court: every thing being arranged, on St. Bartholomew's day, a horrid massacre was commenced in Paris and throughout France, when, according to Sully, as many as 70,000 were murdered, most of them in their beds; and among the sufferers was the venerable Coligni. Of this most atrocious massacre, the French historian Thuanus observes, that "no example of equal barbarity is to be found in all antiquity, or in the annals of the world."

23. Charles, in giving directions for the massacre of his Protestant subjects, added, "Take care that none escape to reproach me." When the news of this horrible transaction was heard at Rome, solemn thanks were given for "the tri

umph of the church militant!" Charles, who was a monster of cruelty, profligacy, and dissimulation, died soon after this massacre, for which he suffered the bitterest remorse. Notwithstanding the distractions of this unhappy reign, many wise laws were enacted through the influence of the celebrated chancellor De l'Hospital.

24. Charles was succeeded by his brother Henry III., a weak, fickle, and vicious monarch. The massacre of St. Bartholomew served rather to strengthen than weaken the Protestants, who were now a powerful party, and had at their head the Prince of Condé and the King of Navarre. Henry found it expedient to grant them some privileges: this measure incensed the Catholics, who, with the Duke of Guise at their head, formed the celebrated League for the purpose of extirpating the Calvinists: it had also another and more secret object, that of usurping all the powers of government.

25. The king was persuaded to unite himself with this league, and took the field against the Protestants. But he soon found himself deprived of a great part of his authority by the duke of Guise; and after repeated contests, Henry caused the duke, and his brother the cardinal of Lorraine, to be put to death by the hand of assassins. This act excited an insurrection throughout France, and subjected the king to the abhorrence of his subjects; and he was soon after assassi-

nated himself by James Clement, a Dominican friar.

SECTION V.

HOUSE OF BOURBON:—Henry IV.; Louis XIII.; Louis XIV.—From A. D. 1589 to 1715.

1. As Henry III. died without children, and the house of Valois was extinct, the throne passed to the house of Bourbon, in the person of Henry III., king of Navarre, who now became Henry IV. of France, afterwards surnamed the Great. His mother had avowed herself the protector of the Reformed religion, in which he had been educated. He was now in his 36th year; an able general, possessed of distinguished talents and popular qualities, for the exercise of all which he soon found ample occasion, as his being a Protestant prejudiced the greater part of his people against him.

12

2. The army of the League was now commanded by the Duke of Mayenne, brother of the late duke of Guise, who proclaimed his uncle, the Cardinal of Bourbon, king, by the title of Charles X. Henry defeated this army in the famous

battle of Ivry.

3. Meeting afterwards with various obstacles, he was induced, by views of policy, in order to conciliate the majority of his subjects, to renounce Protestantism, and declare himself a Catholic. He was then crowned at Chartres, and obtained absolution from the pope. To his old friends, the Calvinists, who had been his defenders, and by whose aid he ascended the throne, he granted the celebrated Edict of Nantes, by which he confirmed all their rights and privileges, giving them free admission to all offices of honor and profit.

4. After Henry was quietly seated on the throne, he turned his attention to the improvement of the internal condition of his kingdom; encouraging agriculture and commerce, causing mulberry-trees to be planted, and silk-worms to be reared; and in all his patriotic designs, he found an able assistant in his great minister the Duke of Sully, in whom he possessed what kings can rarely boast of—a true friend. The civil war, of nearly thirty years' duration, had produced the most calamitous effects: the crown was loaded with debt; the country uncultivated; the people poor and miserable: but by means of the wise and prudent measures which were adopted, the face of things was soon happily changed; and, during this reign, all the state debts were discharged.

5. Henry, with the aid of Sully, formed a romantic scheme, styled the grand design, for dividing Europe into 15 states, so arranged as to avoid the grounds of war, and secure perpetual peace. With regard to his real motive, there have been different opinions; but the object, whatever it might be, was to be obtained by force of arms. Having made great preparations for war, just before he was to set out to put himself at the head of his army, he was assassinated by Ravaillac, a bigoted Catholic, in the 21st year of his reign, and the 57th of

his age.

6. Henry was the most popular sovereign that ever sat on the throne of France. His person and manners were prepossessing, at once inspiring affection and commanding respect: his talents were great, both as a general and a statesman; but his master virtue was his love for his people. His soldiers and his subjects regarded him with the affection of children. When asked what the revenue of France amounted

to, he replied, "To what I please; for having the hearts of my people, they will give me whatever I ask: if God sees proper to spare my life, I will take care that France shall be in such a condition, that every peasant in it shall be able to

have a fowl in his pot."

7. Notwithstanding his many noble qualities as a sovereign and a man, yet, as a husband, he is little to be commended; his dissoluteness rendered his domestic life unhappy, and the manners of his court were rendered profligate by the example of his libertine conduct. No less than 4,000 French gentlemen are said to have been killed in duels, chiefly arising out of amorous quarrels, during the first 18 years of his reign.

8. Henry was succeeded by his son Louis XIII., then a boy in his 9th year. Mary de Medicis, the mother of the young king, who was appointed regent, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for Italian favorites, and the kingdom soon relapsed into the most fatal disorders. But the allocities of Cardinal Richelicu, who, after the king became of age, was made prime minister, soon effected a great change. It was his policy to promote rather the aggrandizement of the kingdom that the true interests and happiness of the people. His tree leading objects were, to subdue the turbulent spirit of the French nobility, to humble the power of the Protestants, and to curb the encroachments of the house of Austria.

9. The Protestants, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and establish an independent state, of which Rochelle was to be the capital. Richelieu laid siege to this city, which, after maintaining a most obstinate resistance for a year, during which 15,000 persons perished, was forced to surrender. By this event, the civil war was ended.

and the Protestant power in France finally crushed.

10. The cardinal entered deeply into foreign politics, influenced all the courts of Europe, and was continually engaged in vast projects for humbling his enemies, and extending his influence abroad, or in checking the designs which were formed against his power and his life at home. A rebellion was excited by the Duke of Orleans, the king's brother, supported by the Duke of Montmorency; but their army was defeated, and Montmorency executed for treason. Amidst all this turbulence and intrigue, the haughty and ambitious cardinal extended the glory of the French name to distant regions, commanded the respect of all the European powers, patronized literature and science, and instituted the French Academy.

- 11. Louis was so completely under the influence of Richelieu, that his character is little seen. He acquired the epithet of *Just*; but if he were entitled to it, the injustice and cruelty of some of the public measures of his reign, must be imputed entirely to his minister.
- 12. Louis XIV. (sometimes surnamed the Great) succeeded to the throne in the 5th year of his age, under the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, who made choice of Cardinal Mazarin for her minister. Mazarin was an artful Italian, whose excessive avarice rendered him odious to the people; but one of his greatest faults was his neglect of the education of the young king, who was instructed only in dancing, fencing, and other superficial accomplishments. The administration of Mazarin was signalized by the defeat of the Spaniards, and by intestine commotions, particularly a civil war, called the Fronde, fomented by Cardinal de Retz, and supported by the aristocracy.

13. On the death of Mazarin, Louis, being now 22 years of age, took upon himself the entire command and direction of the affairs of government, and entered on a vigure and splendid career. The love of glory was his ruling as and this he pursued not only by the terror of his arms and the splendor of his conquests, but also by his patronage of literature, science, and the arts; by his able administration of internal affairs; and by the extension and improvement of all kinds of public works. The capital was embellished, the splendid palace of Versailles built, commerce and manu-

factures encouraged, the canal of Languedoc, and other useful works, constructed.

14. The finances were admirably regulated by Colbert, one of the ablest statesmen of modern times: in the former part of his reign, his armies were commanded by Condé and Turenne, two of the greatest generals of the age; and the genius of the famous Vauban was employed in fortifying his towns.

15. For a long time, he was every where successful: he conquered Franche Compté, and annexed it to France; made great conquests in the Netherlands; overran Alsace; and twice laid waste the Palatinate with fire and sword. Such was the barbarous devastation, that, in the first instance, from the top of the castle of Manheim, 27 cities and towns of the Palatinate were seen, at the same time, in flames; and in the second instance, more than 40 towns, and a vast number of villages, were burnt, and the inhabitants reduced to the greatest extremities by hunger and cold.

16. In 1675, Turenne was killed by a cannon ball; Condé soon after retired; and Colbert died. No men of equal talents arose to supply their places. The conquests of Louis had been made at such an enormous expense, that his dominions were, in a measure, exhausted, and his means of defence weakened. He had, by his unbounded ambition, by the violence and injustice of his projects, and the alarming increase of his power, gradually raised up, among the states of Europe, a formidable opposition to his authority, which gave rise to long and bloody wars.

17. By the League of Augsburg, which was organized in 1686, Holland, Spain, Sweden, the emperor and several of the princes of Germany, were united against him. In 1701, the alliance against France by England, Germany, and Holland, was formed. A series of reverses marked the latter part of his long reign. His armies had now to contend against the genius of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, who gained over them the celebrated battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet; and at the peace of

Utrecht, he lost nearly all that he had gained.

18. One of the most unjust as well as impolitic measures of Louis, was the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV., for the toleration of the Protestants. By this barbarous act, all the Reformed churches were destroyed, their ministers banished, and every individual was outlawed, or compelled to renounce his religion. They were hunted like wild beasts, and great numbers were put to death. By this measure, the kingdom lost from 500,000 to 800,000 of her most useful and industrious citizens, who were driven into exile, and carried the arts and manufactures of France.

in which the Protestants greatly excelled, to other countries.

19. Louis died in the 73d year of his reign, and the 78th of his age. His reign was the longest and most brilliant in the history of France, but not the happiest for his country; and his government was more despotic than that of his predecessors. "The greater part of his reign," says Anqueuil, "may be considered as a spectacle with grand machinery, calculated to excite astonishment. Towards the end, we behold nothing but the wrecks of that theatrical majesty, and

the illusion vanishes."

20. Louis was one of the handsomest men in his kingdom, and excelled in all the polite accomplishments. In his appearance and manners there was an extraordinary degree of dignity and majesty, which were softened and tempered by affability and politeness; so that, if he was not the greatest king, he was at least, as Bolingbroke expresses it, "the best

actor of majesty that ever filled a throne."

21. He possessed great vigor of mind, and good talents, which were, however, but little improved by education. His morals were dissolute, and his ambition and love of glory were insatiable, and led him to violate the duties of justice and humanity, and to sacrifice the real interests of his people. He patronized every species of merit, and his reign, which is regarded as the Augustan Age of French literature, was less illustrious for military achievements, than for the splendor of the arts and sciences.

SECTION VI.

Louis XV.; Louis XVI.:—The Revolution.—From A. D 1715 to 1793.

1. Louis XV., great-grandson of the late king, succeeded to me throne in his 6th year; and the Duke of Orleans was appointed regent. This regency is remarkable chiefly for the famous Mississippi scheme of Law, who formed a project to pay off the national debt, by the introduction of a paper currency;—a scheme which was ruinous to the fortunes of thousands.

'2. Louis, soon after he came of age, chose for his minister the mild and amiable Cardinal Fleury, who was then 73 years of age, and retained his vigor till near 90. By his pacific counsels, the tranquillity of France, and even of the rest of Europe, was continued, with little interruption, for nearly

20 years.

3. After the death of Fleury, France was involved in the war of the Austrian Succession, which was occasioned by the death of the emperor Charles VI. There were two claimants to the imperial throne, Maria Theresa, the late emperor's eldest daughter, who was married to Francis of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuscany; and Charles, the elector of Bavaria. The former was supported by England; the latter by France and Prussia. In this war, the French were defeated by the allies, under George II. of England, at Dettingen; but under marshal Saze, they gained the battle of Fontenoy. Hostilities were terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which the claim of Maria Theresa was acknowledged.

4. In 1755, a war broke out between France and England respecting their American possessions, which was terminated by the peace of Paris, in 1763, when Canada and the territories in North America, were ceded by France to Great Britain. The remainder of this reign was chiefly occupied with the conquest of Corsica, and contests between the king and his parliaments.

5. Louis died after a reign of 59 years, and a life of 65. He possessed nothing, as a king or a man, that entitled him to the gratitude or affection of his people. In the early part of his reign, his subjects conferred upon him the title of Well-beloved; but a long source of rapacity, profusion, and tyranny, as a monarch, and of the most profligate debaucheries in private life, induced them to retract the appellation. His reign resembled that of Charles II. of England, in its pernicious influence on the interests of religion, morality, and liberty. His own odious character; his attempts to crush the spirit of freedom; the prodigality of his government; the extreme profligacy of his court,—all conspired to loosen the bonds between the sovereign and his subjects; and the general uneasiness, and the murmurs of the people, indicated approaching storms.

6. Louis XVI. succeeded his grandfather at the age of 20 years. He was a man of correct morals, upright intentions; desirous of correcting abuses; but was wanting in decision of character. His post was one beset with great difficulty and danger from various quarters. It was difficult either to do good, or to continue evil; as the privileged classes were as little disposed to submit to reforms, as the people to abuses. The finances, by reason of the long course of prodigality, were in the most embarrassed condition; and the people, irritated by the tyrannical conduct of the late sovereign,

were now more than ever alive to their rights.

One of the first measures of the new king was, to remove from office those who, by their misconduct, had become unpopular, and had contributed to the distresses of the kingdom, and to replace them by men of talents and integrity. Turgot was placed at the head of the finances, and Malesherbes was made minister of the interior. These enlightened statesmen attempted useful reforms, which offended the courtiers and privileged orders; and after a short ministry, they retired from office.

8. The celebrated Necker, a Protestant of Geneva, and a banker, succeeded Turgot, and pursued the system of econo-

my and reform; but becoming unpopular with the courtiers he was displaced. The important office of the general control of the finances had now become exceedingly difficult to fill. Two financiers having attempted, without success, to supply the place of Necker, the office was given, in 1783, to Calonne, who abandoned reforms, and made a boast of prodigality.

9. War between Great Britain and the American Colonies having broken out, many Frenchmen, among whom were the Marquis de Lafayette, and other officers and engineers, crossed the Atlantic to aid the Americans; and France soon after declared war against England. On the return of peace, in 1783, the difficulties increased the enormous public expenses had brought the finances into the most embarrassed condition, and the government was reduced to a stand for

want of supplies.

- 10. Various causes had been, for some time, at work to produce a revolution in France, which was now about to burst forth, and convulse not only that country, but the whole civilized world. Some of the principal of these causes, were the progress of philosophy, the diffusion of information, and the freedom of thinking on subjects of government and religion; the notions and feelings in favor of liberty excited by the American revolution, and disseminated by the return of the French officers and army from the United States; the prevalence of infidelity among the literary classes; the despotism of the government, and the abuses both of the ecclesiastical and political establishments; the odious privileges of the nobility and clergy, especially their exemption from taxes; the desire of the nobility to regain those privileges of which they had been stripped by the crown; and the discontent of the mass of the people on account of their oppressed condition, being the despised portion of the state, yet bearing all its burdens. All these circumstances had an influence in preparing the way for this great event; yet the more immediate cause of the revolution was the derangement of the finances.
- 11. All plans for restoring the finances to order having proved ineffectual, Louis, by the advice of Calonne, convoked an assembly of the *Notables*, a body consisting of persons selected by the king, chiefly from the higher orders of the state. To this assembly it was proposed to levy a land-tax, proportioned to property, without any exception in favor of the nobility or clergy; but being little inclined to make sacrifices, hey refused to sanction the measure

12. Calonne, finding it impossible any longer to maintain his ground, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse. But the assembly of Notables still continuing unmanageable and parsimonious, recourse was then had to the Parliament of Paris, but without success, and a convocation of the States-General was demanded. This body, which was composed of three orders, nobility, clergy, and the third estate, or commons, had not been assembled since 1614; and it never had a regular existence.

13. Necker was again recalled to power; and a second assembly of the Notables was convoked, in order to determine the form and composition of the States-General. Necker proposed that the deputies of the commons should equal, in number, those of the other two orders united; but the Notables refused to concur in the measure. It was, however, sanctioned by the king, and carried into effect. The commons chose able men; and on the 5th of May, 1789, the assembly of the States-General was opened at Versailles. This body carried forward a revolution, which was now effectually commenced.

14. The king addressed the States-General in a conciliatory speech, no longer using the language of a sovereign who expected implicit obedience to his will. But difficulties soon arose respecting the manner in which questions should be decided, whether by a majority of orders or of polls, and whether there should be a separation or union of the three branches.

15. At length the commons, together with such of the nobility and clergy as were disposed to unite with them, on the motion of the Abbé Siéyes, seized the legislative authority, declared themselves the representatives of the people, constituted themselves the National Assembly, a body "one and indivisible." Of this assembly, Bailly was the president, and Mirabeau, a man of brilliant talents and great eloquence, was the popular leader. The Duke of Orleans, a descendant of Louis XIII., noted for his immense wealth and profligacy, was also a prominent member.

16. The first decree of the National Assembly was an act of sovereignty; and by proclaiming the indivisibility of the legislative power, it placed under its dependence the privileged orders. Thus Louis found that his authority was, in a great measure, wrested from him; and the great body of the nobility and clergy, by their refusal to unite with the commons, likewise saw themselves shut out from power, and their

privileges invaded.

17. During the irritated state of the public mind, the king again dismissed Necker from office. This unpopular measure was the signal for insurrection in Paris, which was soot in a state of violent commotion. The Bastile, a huge state prison, was demolished by the populace; other excesses were committed in the city and elsewhere, by the furious rabble, and by mobs of frantic women of the vilest character. The army united with the people; the nobles emigrated for safety, and for foreign aid; the king, queen, and royal family, were forced, on the 6th of October, from Versailles to the capital by the ungovernable mob; but were protected from violence by the influence and efforts of Lafgyette, who camanded the national guard. In consequence of this emoval, the Assembly adjourned its sittings to Paris.

18. The progress of the revolution ar rapid, and produc-

18. The progress of the revolution was rapid, and produced the most important consequences. The seat of power was changed, and all the preliminary alterations were effect ed. The three orders were discontinued; the States-General converted into the Assembly of the nation; the royal authority nearly annihilated; the privileges of the nobles and clergy, and the feudal system, in all its branches, abolished; religious liberty and the freedom of the press established; the church lands confiscated; the monasteries suppressed; and

France was divided into 83 departments.

19. After these measures were accomplished, the great design of the National Assembly was, the formation of a constitution, and from this circumstance, it is denominated the Constituent Assembly. While engaged in its deliberations, Louis and his family, finding their situation uncomfortable, escaped from Paris, but were stopped on the frontiers of the kingdom, and brought back. A constitution, which established limited monarchy, and the equality of all ranks, was at length completed, and accepted by the king, and the assembly dissolved itself on the 30th of September, 1791.

20. The next assembly, styled the Legislative Assembly, met on the first of October, and was composed wholly of new members, as the members of the Constituent Assembly were, by their own act, excluded from holding seats in it. Soon after the commencement of the revolution, various political clubs were formed in Paris, of which the Jacobin club (so called from its meeting in a convent of suppressed Jacobin monks) was the most prominent, and insensibly absorbed all the rest; and, for a time, this factious association governed the capital, and controlled the Assembly.

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21. On the 21st of September, 1792, a new body, styled the *National Convention*, commenced their deliberations; and at their first sitting, they abolished the regal government, and declared France a *republic*. The king was arraigned at their bar to answer to various charges; he appeared before them with a firm and manly countenance, and looked round mon the assembly with an air of resolution.

22. Desèze, one of the defenders of the king, ended his speech with these words: "Listen to History, who will say to Fame—Louis, who ascended the throne at the age of twenty, carried with him there an example of morals, of justice, and of economy: he had no weaknesses, no corrupting passions, and he was the constant friend of his people. The people desired that a disastrous impost should be abolished, and Louis abolished it; the people asked for the destruction of servitudes, and Louis destroyed them; they demanded reforms, he consented to them; they wished to change the laws by which they were governed, he agreed to their wish; the people required that several millions of F r chmen should recover their rights, and these he restored w wem; the people asked for liberty, and he gave it. No one can dispute that Louis had the glory of anticipating the demands of his people by making these sacrifices; and it is he whom it has been proposed to.... Citizens, I cannot go ca; I pause in the presence of History: remember that History will judge your judgment, and that her decision will be that of ages to come."

23. But the passions of the Convention were deaf and unmoved; and the sentence of death was pronounced by a majority of 26 out of 721 voters. The king was carried to the place of execution, and mounted the ladder of the scaffold with a firm step. "I die innocent," said he; "I forgive my enemies; and you, unfortunate people...." At this moment, the noise of the drums drowned his voice; the executioners seized him; and the axe of the guillotine separated his head from his body, on the 21st of January, 1793. Thus perished, at the age of thirty-nine, and after a most disastrous reign of eighteen years and a half, this well disposed, but most unfortunate monarch.

SECTION VII.

The Revolution continued:—Robespierre; Bonaparte; European War:—Louis XVIII.; Charles X.

1. A new constitution was published by the Convention; the executive power was lodged in a Committee of Public Sasety; and the revolutionary tribunal was erected under Robespierre and his associates, whose bloody domination is styled "the reign of terror." Two factions soon arose in the National Convention, one styled the Mountain party, from their occupying the most elevated seats in the hall of the Convention,—these were the most violent revolutionists, and advocates for the extreme of democracy; the other, named Girondists, because some of their leaders were from the department of the Gironde,—these were more moderate, and more distinguished for love of order and equity. The leaders of the former were Robespierre, Danton, and Marut, men almost unparalleled in depravity and cruelty: of the latter, the leaders were Brissot, Vergniaud, and Condorcet.

2. The Mountain party, having gained the ascendency over their opponents, were instrumental in causing the most horrid massacres. They condemned and executed the Queen Antoinette, and guillotined Brissot, Vergniaud, and 20 others of the Girondists. That monster of vice, the Duke of Orleans, suffered the same fate from the hands of the very party that he had materially contributed to bring forward to serve

his own purposes.

3. The Convention abandoned themselves to the most extravagant excesses: on the motion of Gobet, archbishop of Paris, they suppressed the Christian religion; passed a decree that the only French deities hereafter should be Liberty, Equality, and Reason; established a republican calendar; abolished the Sabbath, and instead of it, made every 10th day a day of rest. The churches were plundered of their gold and silver; and even their bells were melted and cast into cannon.

4. The Convention was at length divided anew into wo most viclent parties; Robespierre at the head of one, and Danton of the other. Robespierre triumphed, and all his most active opponents were guillotined; but his own fate soon followed, being condemned and executed on a charge of tyranny, in July, 1794 The Jacobins were soon after suppressed by the Convention; and during the next year, the

third constitution was proclaimed, the executive power being vested in *five directors*.—From 1791 to 1799, four different constitutions were formed. By the 4th, adopted in 1799, the executive power was vested in three *consuls*, of whom *Bonaparte* was elected to be first, *Cambaceres* the second, and *Le Brun* the third.

5. The French revolution was at first political, as directed against the absolute power of the court and the privileges of the higher classes; but it afterwards became military, because Europe attacked it. The European sovereigns, fearful of its consequences in their respective dominions; attempted to put it down; but on the contrary, they extended its sphere. It was destined in its progress to work a change in the politics of Europe, by terminating the struggle of the kings with each other, and beginning one between the kings and the people, and in its final result, it diminished the power of the sovereigns and the privileges of the nobility and clergy, and promoted the liberty of the people and the advancement of civilization.

6. Before the execution of the king, many of the clergy and nobility, together with multitudes of persons, attached to the ancient order of things, had fled from France, through fear of personal danger, and to solicit foreign aid. A powerful body was thus collected on the frontiers, who were assisted by the surrounding nations, especially the *Prussians* and *Austrians*, in their efforts to recisablish royalty and tranquillity. This was the origin (1792) of the *First* of that series of *Coalitions* against France, into which nearly all the powers of Europe successively entered. On the death of the king, Great Britain and Holland, and soon afterwards Russia and Spain also, declared war against France.

7. The invading army was commanded by the Duke of Brunswick, who injudiciously published a threatening manifesto, the effect of which was to irritate the revolutionists incogreater violences, to hasten the execution of the king, and to

unite all parties in the defence of the country.

8. The combined invasion under the Duke of Brunswick was completely overthrown. France in her turn became the assailant; and her army under Dumouriez conquered the Netherlands in the autumn of 1792; and afterwards Holland, Switzerland, and a part of Germany, yielded to her arms. The republic, having made peace with several of the German princes, turned her views towards Italy; and the command of the army was (1796) given to Napoleon Bonaparte, then a young man in the 27th year of his age, who had previously

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distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. By a series of rapid victories, this extraordinary man retrieved the affairs of France, and obliged the Austrians to sign, in 1797, the treaty of Campo Formio, by which the conquests of the French in the Netherlands were confirmed, and the Milanese ceded to the new Cisalpine Republic; whilst the Venetian territories were given up to Austria.

9. The Second Coalition was formed after the defeat of the French fleet, in 1798, by that of the English, under Nelson, in the bay of Aboukir, off the mouth of the Nile. Before this event, Bonaparte had invaded Egypt, defeated the Mamelukes in the battle of the Puramids, and taken possession of Cairo

and all the Delta.

10. In the campaign of 1799, the French were very unfortunate; the Austrians, under the Archduke Charles, and the Russians, under Suwarrow, gained a number of important victories in the north of Italy, in Switzerland, and in Germany: by their united forces, the very frontiers of France were threatened; whilst the ill conduct of the Directory at home, brought the country to the brink of ruin. At this crisis, Bonaparte, who had proceeded from Egypt to Syria, and taken Jaffa, returned to Paris, and, by the aid of Fouché, Cambaceres, Talleyrand, Lucien Bonaparte, and Siéyes, together with a military force, he abolished the Directory, framed a new constitution, and caused himself to be elected first consul.

11. From this moment, the affairs of the republic took a new turn. By his activity and energy, Bonaparte overcame the intrigues of all his rivals, introduced a new order of things in the different departments of state; suppressed the various factions, that had long raged in the empire; and, by the reformation of many abuses, restored order and tranquillity to

the government.

12. After this, he put himself at the head of the army; and having effected the celebrated passage of the Alps, defeated the Austrians under Melas, in the memorable battle of Marcengo, which decided the fate of Italy. This victory, together with the defeat of the Austrians at Hohenlinden, by the French under Morcau, and other successes, led the way to the peace of Luneville with Austria and the German empire (1801); and afterwards to the peace of Amiens, with England (1802). thus Lurope, for the first time since the late revolution, enjoyed the blessings of universal peace.

13. The limits of France were now greatly enlarged, and Bonaparte, as first consul, exercised an absolute sway over

almost all the continent of Europe west of the Adriatic and the Rhine. Soon after the establishment of peace, he restored the Catholic religion, concluded a concordat or convention with the pope, granted toleration to all religions, and institu-

ted the Legion of Honor.

14. He was next elected first consul for life, with supreme power; but a conspiracy was now formed against him, in which *Moreau*, *Pichegru*, *Georges*, and other eminent men were accused of participating. Moreau was banished to America; Pichegru was strangled; Georges and 11 others were guillotined; and the *Duke d'Enghien* was shot without trial.—In 1804, *Bonaparte* was proclaimed *Emperor of France*, and was crowned by the pope; the next year, he as-

sumed also the title of King of Italy.

15. The peace of Amiens was of short duration. In 1803, the war was renewed between France and England; Bonaparte seized Hanover, and threatened to invade the British isles; and in 1805, the Third Coalition was formed by England, Austria, Russia, Sweden, and afterwards Prussia. The emperor immediately put himself at the head of the French army; carried his rapid and victorious arms to Ulm, where he captured the Austrian army of 33,000 men under Mack; and, in the memorable battle of Austriktz, defeated the united forces of Russia and Austria; at which battle the three emperors were present. This great victory terminated the campaign, and brought about the peace of Presburg, by which Austria ceded to the French the Venetian territories, and submitted to other humiliating conditions.

16. A few weeks before the battle of Austerlitz, the English fleet, under Lord Nelson, gained a great victory off Cape Trafalgar, over the combined fleets of France and Spain-The English captured 19 ships of the line, but lost their great

admiral, who was slain in the action.

17. The king of Naples having permitted a British and Russian army to land in his dominions, the emperor of France deposed the Neapolitan dynasty, and raised his brother Joseph to the throne; he also compelled the Dutch to receive his brother Louis, as king of Holland. He next subverted the constitution of the German empire, and formed a union of several states, under the title of "The Confederation of the Rhine," of which he was chosen protector. Francis II. sclemnly resigned his title as "emperor of Germany and king of the Romans," and took that of hereditary emperor of Austria. The electors of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony,

joined the Confederation, and were raised, by Bonaparte, to

the rank of kings.

18. The vast accession of power acquired by this alliance, was the cause of new jealousies, and hastened the Fourth Coalition, formed in 1806, by which Prussia, Russia, Austria, Sweden, and England, were united in the war against France. Hostilities were commenced by the Prussians, without waiting for the aid of Russia; but Bonaparte, with his usual good fortune, gained over them the great battles of Jena and Auerstadt; entered the capital of Prussia as a conqueror, and here commenced the "Continental System" against English commerce, by issuing the Berlin Decree, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade, and ordering all ports to be shut against them. The French army penetrated into Poland, and gained an advantage over the Russians, in the hard-fought battle of Pultusk.

19. The following year, Bonaparte fought with the Russians the indecisive battle of Eylau; defeated them at Friedland; and having gained possession of Dantzic and Konigsberg, concluded the peace of Tilsit. Separate treaties were made with Russia and Prussia: the former gained a small acquisition of territory; but the dominions of the latter were reduced almost one half; both agreed to shut their ports against England, and thus became parties in the French emperor's favorite object of excluding British commerce from the continent. The provinces conquered from Prussia were erected into the new kingdom of Westphalia, of which Jerome Bonaparte was acknowledged king.

20. The English government, in retaliation of Bonaparte's Berlin Decree, issued their Orders in Council, by which all neutral vessels trading with France were compelled to stop at a British port and pay a duty. After the peace of Tilsit, the emperor proceeded to Italy; and at Milan, in consequence of the Orders in Council, he issued his Milan Decree, by which every vessel which submitted to British search, or consented to any pecuniary exactions whatever, was confiscated.

21. Elated by his astonishing successes, the emperor of France appeared now to consider himself as sovereign of Europe, and to set at defiance all principles of justice and moderation. Being ambitious of appropriating more of the thrones of Europe to his brothers and relatives, he next fixed his attention on *Spain* and *Portugal*; and so decisive was he in the execution of his plans, that in a short time, the royal family of Portugal emigrated to Brazil.

22. Though Charles IV., king of Spain, had shown himself subservient to the views of the French emperor, yet the latter was not content, but compelled the Spanish monarch to resign his crown in favor of his brother Joseph Bonaparte, whom he removed from Naples, and caused to be proclaimed king of Spain; and he raised to the throne of Naples Murat,

who had married his sister.

23. The Spaniards rose in opposition to this tyrannical measure, and in this emergency, had recourse to England, who readily afforded her assistance. The war which was thus excited in the peninsula, continued to rage from 1808 to 1813; and, in a series of engagements, the forces of England and Spain, under the command of Wellington and others, were, in most instances, victorious over the armies of France. Some of the principal exploits in this war, were the desperate, but ineffectual defence of Saragossa, by Palafor, and the victories of Wellington at Talavera, Salamanca, and Vittoria.

24. In 1809, while the war was raging in Spain, hostilities again broke out between France and Austria, which were prosecuted by Bonaparte with his usual success. Having gained advantages over the Austrians at Abensberg, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon, he entered Vienna; afterwards fought, against the Archduke Charles, the indecisive battle of Aspern or

Essling, and entirely defeated him at Wagram.

25. This war was terminated by the treaty of Vienna or Schoenbrunn, by which Francis II., the emperor of Austria, was compelled to submit to considerable losses of territory, to accede to the "continental system," and, what was more humiliating, to promise his daughter Maria Louisa, in marriage to his great and victorious enemy. In consequence of this treaty, Bonaparte was solemnly divorced from his empress Josephine, and became allied to the imperial house of Austria. . 26. By the treaty of Tilsit, Alexander, the emperor of Russia, had acceded to Bonaparte's "continental system" against England, by agreeing to exclude British goods from his dominions; but the consequences of this measure were extremely injurious to his subjects, and ruinous to his finances. The year (1811) was spent in negotiations and discussions; but as they did not promise an amicable adjustment, both parties prepared for war. Early in the spring of 1812, Bonaparte collected, in Poland, an immense army, consisting of 400,000 infantry, 60,000 cavalry, and 1,200 pieces of artillery; and on the 24th of June, crossing the Niemen, he in-

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27. His march was directed towards Moscow, the ancient capital of the empire, and was every where marked with desolation and blood. He defeated the Russians at Smolensk, fought the tremendous battle of Borodino, or Moskwa, in which nearly 30,000 men fell on each side; proceeded afterwards to Moscow, which he found enveloped in flames, and abandoned by the inhabitants. The city had been set on fire by the Russians, in order to prevent the French from deriving any advantage from possessing it; and nearly three fourths of it were consumed, before the conflagration ceased.

28. This extraordinary transaction was the cause of the greatest mortification and disappointment to Bonaparte. He had imagined that, after obtaining possession of Moscow, he should become the arbiter of the whole Russian empire, and be able to prescribe to it such a peace as he should think proper. But his good fortune had now forsaken him; and finding himself thwarted in this object, the Russian generals concentrating their forces around him, and the horrors of a Russian winter approaching, he thought it most prudent to

evacuate the city, and retreat towards the frontiers.

29. Then followed, amidst the solitudes and snows of Russia, in consequence of cold and famine, a series of disasters, losses, and sufferings, which are scarcely paralleled in history, and which issued in the almost entire destruction of the invading army. About 30,000 horses perished by the severity of the weather in a single day; all the pieces of cannon were lost; and only about 30,000 men remained to re-cross the Niemen.

30. After the remnant of the French army had effected the disastrous passage of the Berezina, near the frontiers of Russia, the emperor quitted at, and fled, in disguise, through Poland and Germany to Paris. He resolved to hazard another campaigu, and raised a fresh army of 350,000 men; but he was now opposed by the Fifth Coalition, consisting of Russia, Prussia, Austria, some of the confederates of the

Rhine, and Sweden, subsidized by England.

31. Bonaparte again put himself at the head of his army; was worsted by the Allies in the battle of Lutzen; defeated them in the battle of Bautzen; repulsed them at Dresden, where Moreau was slain; but was utterly routed in the tremendous battle of Leipsic, with the loss of 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The combatants, in this action, called the "Battle of Nations," exceeded 400,000; a greater number than has been engaged in any other battle in modern times.

32. Bonaparte made his escape from the scene of his defeat, and proceeded to Paris. In his address to the senate, he frankly acknowledged his disasters. "All Europe," said he, "was with us a year ago—all Europe is now against us." Having attempted in vain to rouse the French people, he again joined his army. In the mean time, the Allies had crossed the Rhine, and penetrating, after a desperate struggle, into the heart of France, they entered Paris.

33. The situation of Bonaparte having now become hopeless, he abdicated the throne of France, and, after various deliberations, the island of *Elba* was fixed upon for his future residence; but he was allowed to retain the title of emperor. The mighty empire which he had raised, was suddenly crumbled to the dust: and *Louis XVIII*, was restored to the

throne of his ancestors.

34. A General Congress was immediately assembled at Vienna, to arrange and settle the affairs of Europe, with a view to restore, yet with many variations, the ancient order of things. But while the sovereigns were deliberating on these matters, Bonaparte, dissatisfied with his situation, made another effort to regain the throne of France. Landing at Frejus, he marched with 1140 men, without opposition, through the country; presented himself in an open carriage to the royal army at Melun; was received with shouts of applause; the same evening, entered Paris in triumph, amiust the loudest acclamations; and was proclaimed emperor; and Louis XVIII. fled, on his approach, to the frontiers. progress of the exiled emperor through France, which was one of the most extraordinary exploits that he ever performed, is without a parallel in history, and evinces, in the most striking manner, his ascendency over the French nation. In 20 days from his landing at Frejus, he found himself quietly seated on the throne, without having spilled a drop of blood.

35. Aware that he had not returned to his former power, he therefore, in order to strengthen his authority, issued some popular decrees, establishing the freedom of the press, abolishing the slave-trade, and regulating the taxes which weighed most heavily on the people: he also condescended to offer them the plan of a constitution very different from the system of despotism upon which he had before acted, and containing

many excellent regulations.

36. He had, however, but little time for legislative measures. As soon as his arrival in France was nown at Vienna, he was declared by the Congress a traitor, and an outlaw:

and a new and formidable coalition was immediately formed against him among the European powers. He placed himself once more at the head of a large army, but was entirely defeated by the Allies under the command of *Wellington* and *Blucher*, in the memorable battle of *Waterloo*, which cost the French army upwards of 40,000 men in killed and wounded.

37. This battle sealed the fate of Bonaparte. He returned immediately to Paris, abdicated the throne in favor of his son, and afterwards surrendered himself to captain *Maitland*, of the Bellerophon, claiming, in a letter to the Prince Regent of England, an asylum, "like Themistocles, among the most powerful, most constant, and most generous of his enemies." By the unanimous agreement of the allied sovereigns, he was sent a prisoner to St. Helena, where he arrived on the 17th of October. 1815: and there died on the 5th of May. 1821.

in the 6th year of his captivity, and 52d of his age.

38. The career of Bonaparte surpassed, in many respects, that of every great conqueror who preceded him. No other man has appeared on the theatre of the world, who has been the cause of so many and so astonishing revolutions, or whose contemporary fame has been so widely extended. In his 27th year, he was raised to the chief command of the French army; at the age of 30, he caused himself to be elected first consul; and in his 35th year, he was proclaimed emperor of France. During the ten years that he possessed the imperial throne, he was the most powerful potentate, not only of the age, but of modern times; and he made the world tremble by the terror of his name.

39. He may be emphatically called a king-maker; for he raised to the rank of kings, three brothers, one brother-in-law, and three German electors; Bernadotte, also, one of his generals, was raised to the throne of Sweden. The last four were recognized, by the Congress of Vina, among the le-

gitimate sovereigns of Europe.

40. He united in his own person, at an early period of his life, and in an advanced state of society, the conqueror, the usurper, and the lawgiver. He triumphed over civilized enemies; legislated in a refined age; and seized upon the sceptre of a powerful and enlightened people, among powerful and enlightened rivals. To him France is indebted for an admirable code of laws, in the formation of which he was an efficient agent; in which he greatly prided himself; and with regard to which he was repeatedly heard to say, he "could wish to be buried with it in his hands."

41 He favored, in many instances, liberal principles: patronized merit independent of rank; encouraged liberally such branches of science as were useful to his purposes; granted religious toleration; removed or diminished many abuses; broke down oppressive feudal and ecclesiastical institutions and establishments; and left France, and also Europe, in many respects, in a better condition than he found them. But though he was not more unprincipled than other great conquerors have been, yet his ruling passion was evidently insatiable ambition and lust of power, to which he was ready to sacrifice every principle of justice and humanity. No man ever enjoyed a greater opportunity of benefiting his species than he; but this opportunity he cast away, except so far as it suited his own purposes of self-aggrandizement. He chose to be an Alexander or a Cæsar, rather than a Washington; a subverter, rather than a protector of liberty; a terror and a scourge, rather than a delight and a blessing to mankind.

42. He exercised over his own dominions a military despotism: his ambition prompted him to sacrifice, without scruple, the rights and independence of nations; and rendered him an enemy to freedom, and to the repose of the world. It was not, therefore, without reason, that the friends of liberty, of peace, and of human improvement, exulted at his downfall. His eventful life, and his miserable end, furnish a most instructive lesson on the instability of human affairs, and

the vanity of human glory.

43. After the second dethronement of Bonaparte, Louis XVIII. was again placed or the throne, and a second pacification took place at Paris. France was reduced to nearly the same limits as before the revolution; she was compelled to restore much of the plunder which had been collected at Paris, to pay £28,000,000 sterling, as a partial indemnification for the expenses of the war, and to maintain, for five years, an army of occupation, consisting of 150,000 of allied troops, to be placed in 16 frontier fortresses. In 1817, the Allies consented to reduce the army of occupation to one fifth; and in 1818, it was wholly withdrawn.—Murat, who had been raised to the throne of Naples, and Marshal Ney, having both of them sided with Bonaparte in his attempt to reascend the throne of France, were shot.

44. The principal event during the reign of Louis XVIII., was the unprovoked invasion of Spain, by a French army, under the Duke & Angouléme, by means of which, the designs

of the Constitutionalists of that country for establishing

more liberal system of government, were frustrated.

45. Louis XVIII. was succeeded, in 1824, by his brother Count d'Artois, with the title of Charles X., whose reign was signalized by two enterprises of foreign war of some importance; one in favor of the Greeks, in which France united with England and Russia; the other against Algiers, which city, after a siege of 6 days, surrendered to the French army

on the 5th of July, 1830.

46. But the reign of Charles was rendered memorable chiefly by the revolution of 1830. Since the restoration of the Bourbons, there have existed animated contests between the ultra-royalists and the liberal party; and the government endeavored, in various ways, to check the rising spirit of tiberty, by exerting an influence on the elections, by dissolving the chambers, and by restraining the liberty of the press. In March, 1830, the chamber of deputies made a strong stand against the ministry, of which Prince Polignac was the head; and in consequence of this, the chamber was dissolved by the king; new elections were ordered, and the two chambers were convoked for August 3. On the 26th of July, it having been ascertained that a large majority of the newly elected members were liberal, three ordinances were published by the government, one dissolving the chamber before it had met, another suspending the liberty of the press, and a third altering the law of election. The liberal newspapers were suppressed: the bank refused to discount bills; the manufacturers discharged their workmen; Paris was soon in a state of great commotion; the citizens took up arms against the government, and on the 29th of July, the last of the "three days," obtained a complete victory over the king's guards. The chamber of deputies met on the 3d of August (Charles X. having already fled from Paris); declared the throne vacant; new-modelled the constitutional charter; invited the Duke of Orleans to accept the crown, who, on the 9th of August, took the prescribed oath, with the title of Louis Philip, King of the French.

[[]For a chronological view of the History of France, see page 329.]

ENGLAND.

SECTION I.

The History of England: The Roman Conquest: The Saxon Conquest: The Heptarchy.—From B. C. 55 to A. D. 827.

1. The history of no country, of either ancient or modern times, is richer in various instruction, or calculated to excite deeper interest, than that of England. We here see the gradual rise of a people from a low state of barbarism, to the highest rank in national power, in the arts both of peace and war, in commercial wealth, and intellectual and moral greatness.

2. In England, liberty has maintained frequent and bloody conflicts with tyranny. No nation can boast of more ardent patriots, of firmer and more enlightened fine. Is to the rights and liberties of mankind, or men of higher excellence, or of greater intellectual endowments, than are presented to us in

the eventful pages of English history.

3. To the citizens of the *United States*, the history of England is next in importance to that of their own country; for it is, to a majority of them, the history of their own ancestors; as it is also of the country from which have been derived, in a great measure, their language and literature,

and their civil and religious institutions.

- 4. We feel a peculiar interest and sympathy in the conflicts which civil and religious liberty has there maintained with despotism and bigotry; for our ancestors were, more or less, involved in them; and the first settlement and early growth of our own country were, in a great degree, owing to oppression and persecution in the parent state. We have a fellow-feeling for the English patriots of former days, and the memory of John Hampden is scarcely held in greater honor in his native country, than in this.
- 5. Britain was little known to the rest of the world till time of its conquest by the Romans. Julius Cæsar invaded the island 55 years before the Christian era, and conquered a part of it. In the reign of the emperor Claudius, the Roman general Osto'rius defeated the British king Carac'tacus, and

sent him a prisoner to Rome; in the reign of Nero, Sueto' nius defeated the Britons under their queen Boadig'ea; and the Roman dominion was completely established by Agric'ola, who first landed in Britain A. D. 78. He met with an obstinate resistance from Gal'gacus, a Caledonian chief, but in a few years made a complete conquest of all the southern parts of the island.

6. At the time of this conquest, the Britons were a rude and barbarous people, divided into numerous tribes. They were clothed with the skins of beasts, and their property consisted, almost wholly, in their arms and cattle. Their religion was druidism, a most cruel superstition; and the druids, their priests, possessed great authority. They taught the transmigration of souls, and offered in sacrifice human vic-

tims, in great numbers.

7. The Romans built three walls across the island, in order to prevent irruptions of the inhabitants from the north: the first was built of turf, by the emperor Adrian, extending from Solway Frith to the mouth of the Tyne; the second, by Antoni'nus, of earth and stone, reaching from the Forth to the Clyde; and the third by Seve'rus, of stone, running nearly parallel with that of Adrian. Other works were also constructed by them, the remains of which are still to be seen. In the 5th century, the Romans took their final leave of Britain, 465 years after the landing of Julius Cosar.

8. Soon afterwards, the Scots and Picts, from the northern part of the island, invaded and ravaged the country. The Britons, in their distress, applied for assistance to the Saxons, a warlike people, inhabiting the north of Germany. A Saxon army of 1,600 men, commanded by two brothers, Hengist and Horsa, came to their relief, and the Scots and Picts were

defeated, and driven into their own territories.

9. The Saxons, finding the country much superior to their own, procured from Germany a reinforcement of 5,000 men, Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, took possession of Britain, and reduced the inhabitants to submission, or compelled them to leave the country, or retreat to the mountains.—From the

Angles is derived the name of England.

10. Violent contests afterwards took place, in which king Arthur, a British champion, is said to have defeated the Saxons in 12 different engagements. The whole history of this renowned prince is regarded by many as a fiction. But with respect to him, Lord Bacon observes, that "in his acts there is enough of truth to make him famous, besides that which is

fabulous." The Saxons, however, finally triumphed; and in about 150 years after their invasion, the *Heptarchy*, or *Seven Saxon kingdoms*, were established, which subsisted about 200 years, exhibiting a series of dissensions and contests. At length, *Egbert*, a prince of the house of *Cerdic*, the first king of Wessex, by his prudence and valor, united them into one monarchy, under the name of *England*.

11. About 280 years previous to this event, Augustine, with 40 monks, had been sent to Britain by pope Gregory the Great, to convert the Saxons to Christianity: the Britons had long before been partially converted. The state of society, however, was still barbarous. Christianity, in the defective form in which it had been inculcated, had not banished the ignorance of the people, nor softened the ferocity of their manners.

SECTION II.

From the Foundation of the Monarchy to the Norman Conquest.—From A. D. 827 to 1066.

1. Scarcely had Egbert established and regulated his infant monarchy, when he found himself assailed by formidable enemies in the Danes, whose depredations form a prominent feature in the early history of England, and who continued, for upwards of two centuries, to be a scourge to the country.

- 2. The reign of Alfred the Great, the 6th king of England, forms a distinguished era in the early history of the monarchy In one year he defeated the Danes in eight battles. But by a new irruption, they extended their ravages, and forced him to solicit a peace. He was compelled to seek his safety, for many months, in an obscure part of the country, disguised in the habit of a peasant, and lived in a herdsman's cottage as a servant. In this humble situation, the herdsman's wife is said, on one occasion, to have ordered him to take care of some cakes that were baking by the fire; but he forgot his trust, and let them burn; for which she severely reprimanded him.
- 3. Success having rendered his enemies remiss, and his followers having gained some advantages, he left his retreat; and in order to discover the state of the hostile army, he entered the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper. He excited so much interest by his musical talents, that he was

introduced to Guthrum, the Danish prince, and remained with him some days. Having discovered the unguarded condition of the Danes, he returned to his adherents, and with a large force attacked his enemies by surprise, and defeated

them with great slaughter.

4. After having restored tranquillity to his distracted kingdom, he employed himself in cultivating the arts of peace, and in raising his subjects from the depths of wretchedness, ignorance, and barbarism. According to various historians, he divided England into counties, composed a code of laws, established trial by jury, founded the university of Oxford; instituted schools, and, for the instruction of his people, translated a number of works into the Saxon language.

5. The character of Alfred shines forth with distinguished lustre in a dark age. He was one of the greatest and best sovereigns that ever sat on a throne,—equally excellent in his private and his public character. He was distinguished for his personal accomplishments both of body and mind, and is reputed the greatest warrior, legislator, and scholar of the age

in which he lived.

6. He was succeeded by his son *Edward*, surnamed the *Elder*, from his being the first English monarch of that name He inherited the military genius of his father, and his reign was a continued, but successful struggle against the North umbrians and Danes, who were powerful in the north of

England.

7. Athelstan, an able and popular sovereign, was successful in his wars with the Danes, Northumbrians, Scots, Irish, and Welsh, and he enlarged and strengthened his kingdom. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon language, and enacted a law which conferred the rank of thane, or gentleman, on every merchant who made three voyages to

the Mediterranean.

8. Edmund, after a short reign, was assassinated by the notorious robber Leglf. Edred was the slave of superstition, and became the dupe of the famous Dunstan, who was afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, and was canonized as a saint, and with regard to whose pretended conflicts with the devil, ridiculous stories are related in history. Dunstan possessed great abilities, and, under the appearance of sanctity, veiled the most inordinate ambition; yet in these times of superstition and barbarism, he gained a wonderful ascendency over the sovereign and the people.

9. Edwy, or Edwin, by marrying Elgiva, a beautiful princess nearly related to him, gave offence to Dunstan; and

archbishop Odo caused her to be put to death in the most cruel manner.

10. Edgar promoted Dunstan to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and made him his chief counsellor. His reign is remarkable for being the period in which England was freed from volves. Edgar, having heard of the extraordinary beauty of Elfrida, daughter of the Earl of Devonshire, sent Athelwold, his favorite, to ascertain the truth of it. Athelwold, overcome by the charms of Elfrida, on his return, assured the king that the account of her beauty had been greatly exaggerated, and obtained the king's permission to marry her himself. But the king, having afterwards discovered the treachery of his favorite, put him to death, and married Elfrida.

11. Edgar was succeeded by Edward, his son by his first

11. Edgar was succeeded by *Edward*, his son by his first marriage, who was assassinated in the 4th year of his reign, and 19th of his age, at the instigation of his mother-in-law Elfrida; and from this circumstance he was surnamed the

Martyr.

12. Ethelred II., the son of Edgar and Elfrida, succeeded to the throne at the age of 11 years. He was a weak monarch, surnamed the Unready. The Danes again renewed their ravages, and by the order of the king, such of these foreigners as were settled throughout England, were massacred, at the festival of St. Brice, without distinction of age or sex. The news of this barbarous transaction, arriving in Denmark, fired every bosom with a desire of vengeance.

13. A large army of Danes, under their king Sweyn (who was the grandson of Beatrix, the daughter of Edward the Elder), invaded and ravaged the country. Ethelred fled to Normandy, and Sweyn was acknowledged sole king of England; but he survived his exaltation only a short time, and Etnelred was again restored. The latter, dying not long afterwards, was succeeded by his son Edmund, surnamed Ironside, from his strength and valor; but his abilities and courage

were insufficient to save his sinking country.

14. On the death of Sweyn, his son Canute was proclaimed king of England by the Danes. Having expelled a younger brother who had usurped the throne of Denmark, Canute asserted his claim to the crown of England, invaded the country with a numerous army, and compelled the king to divide his dominions with him. Edmund was soon after murdered by the treachery of Edric, his brother-in-law, and Canute became sole monarch. He was the most powerful sovereign of his time in Burope, and was styled the Great, from his talents

and successes. In the former part of his reign, he was severe, but in the latter part, mild and beneficent; and he died lamented.

15. Canute was succeeded by his son Harold, whose principal amusement was the chase, and who obtained the surname of Harefoot, from his swiftness in running. On his death, the throne was filled by his brother Canute II. or Hardicanute, the last of the Danish kings. The reigns of these two monarchs were short, and signalized by few important

events; and both died without issue.

16. The English now shook off the Danish voke, and restored the Saxon line in Edward, brother of Edmund Ironside; though the rightful heir of this line was Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, the son of Edmund Ironside, who was now an exile in Hungary. Edward had been educated in a monastery; and with regard to his life, says Mr. Burke, "there is little that can call his title to sanctity in question; though he can never be reckoned among the great kings." He married the daughter of Godwin, the Earl of Kent, an ambitious and powerful nobleman, who acted a conspicuous part during this Edward was canonized by the pope, and received the surname of Confessor: and it was pretended that he was avored with the special privilege of curing the scrofula or King's Evil. This power was long supposed to have decended to his successors, and the superstitious practice of touching for that disorder, was continued by the kings of England, from this period till the revolution of 1688.

17. Edward the Confessor, dying without children, is said to have bequeathed the crown to William, Duke of Normandy, though Edgar Atheling, the son of Edward the Outlaw, was rightful heir. Yet Harold, the son of the Earl Godwin, and grandson of Esthritha, daughter of Sweyn, was elected

and proclaimed king by the nobility and clergy.

18. William of Normandy resolved to maintain his claim to the crown of England by force of arms; and having raised an army of 60,000 men, he invaded the country. *Harold*, at the head of an army about equal in number, met him, and was defeated and slain in the memorable battle of *Hastings*. The Normans lost about 15,000 men; and the English the greater part of their army. The nation soon submitted to the sceptre of *William*, who was surnamed the Conqueror.

SECTION III.

THE NORMAN FAMILY:—William I., the Conqueror; William II.; Henry I.; Stephen (of Blois).—From A. D 1066 to 1154.

1. William possessed great abilities both as a statesman and a warrior. In his person he was tall and well proportioned, and is said to have been so strong, that scarcely any other person in that age could bend his bow or handle his arms. "He had," says Mr. Burke, "vices in his composition, and great ones; but they were the vices of a great mind; ambition, the malady of every extensive genius; and avarice, the madness of the wise: one chiefly actuated his youth, the other governed his age. The general run of men he looked on with contempt, and treated with cruelty when they opposed him."

2. He disgusted the English by promoting his Norman followers to all offices of importance. He caused the Norman language to be adopted in the service of the church, as well as in the courts of justice; he is said to have introduced the feudal system, and to have exchanged trial by jury for the pernicious one of single combat; and he compelled the people to extinguish their fires at the sound of the curfew bell [the fire-covering bell], which was rung at 8 o'clock in the

evening.

3. By his forest laws he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game throughout the kingdom; and made it a greater crime to take the life of an animal than that of a man. He formed the *New Forest* by depopulating a tract of country about 30 miles in circuit, demolishing 36 parish churches, together with the houses of the inhabitants. One of the most useful acts of his reign was his compiling *Doomsday Book*, which contained a register of all the estates of the kingdom.

4. William II., surnamed Rufus, from his ted hair, inherited the ambition and talents of his father; and was, like him, tyrannical, perfidious, and cruel. After a reign of 13 years, which was disturbed by insurrections, and by quarrels with the ecclesiastics, particularly with Anselm, the primate, he was accidentally shot by Sir Walter Tyrrel, with an arrow aimed at a stag in the New Forest

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- 5. Henry I., surnamed Beauclerc, or the Scholar, on account of his learning, was the younger brother of William Rufus. He took advantage of the absence of his eldest brother Robert, the rightful heir, who was on a crusade to the Holy Land, and secured the crown for himself. He invaded his brother's Norman dominions, and Robert, on his return, was defeated, taken prisoner, and confined in Wales till his death.
- 6. Henry married Matilda of Scotland, great granddaughter of Edmund Ironside, and in this way the Saxon and Norman families were united. The latter part of his life was rendered disconsolate by the loss of his only son, who was drowned on his passage from Normandy; and from that fatal moment, he was never seen to smile. Henry was an able, courageous, and accomplished sovereign; but ambitious, licentious, and ungrateful.
- 7. On the death of Henry, the crown fell by right to his daughter Matilda or Maud, married first to Henry V., emperor of Germany, and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou. By the latter she had several children, of whom the eldest bore the name of Henry. But Stephen, a nephew of the late king, the most popular nobleman in the kingdom, and distinguished for his ambition, valor, generosity, and courtesy, seized upon the crown. Matilda immediately landed in England, and raising a small army, defeated Stephen, and took possession of the crown; but her haughty and despotic behavior caused a revolt, and Stephen, in his turn, defeated her, compelled her to quit the kingdom, and again obtained possession of the throne.

8. Henry, the son of Matilda, afterwards invaded England, and during the heat of the contest, Eustace, the king's eldest son, was removed by a sudden death. Soon after this event. the jarring interests of the two parties were reconciled; Stephen being allowed to retain the crown during his life, and Henry being acknowledged as his successor; and this transaction was shortly afterwards followed by Stephen's death.-During this reign, England was harassed and desolated by a succession of civil contentions and wars, which were carried on with unrelenting barbarity, by the pillage and destruction of the inhabitants, and the conflagration of the towns.

SECTION IV.

Family of Plantagenet:—Henry II.; Richard I.; John; Henry III.; Edward I.; Edward III.; Richard II.—From A. D. 1154 to 1399.

1. Henry II., the first of the Plantagenets, being descended by his grandmother from the Saxon kings, and by his mother from the Norman family, succeeded to the throne, to the great satisfaction of the nation. He is sometimes called Shortmantle, because he brought the use of short cloaks out of Anjou to England. In addition to England, he possessed, by inheritance, and by his marriage with Eleanor, heiress of the duchy of Guienne, nearly one half of France, and during his reign, he conquered Ireland; so that he had more extensive dominions than any English monarch who had preceded

him, and was the most powerful sovereign of his age.

2. Some of the most remarkable circumstances in Henry's reign, relate to his contests with Thomas Becket, a man of extraordinary talents, who for years acted a prominent part on the theatre of public affairs, first in the office of chancellor, and afterwards in that of archbishop of Canterbury; and who is represented by Catholic historians as a hero and a saint, and by others, as a hypocrite and a traitor. While chancellor, Becket manifested great pride and ambition, and his equipage displayed the magnificence of a prince; but when he became archbishop, he laid aside his ostentatious parade, put on sockoloth, and wore the habit of a monk. Under this show of humility and mortification, he concealed the most ambitious designs, and exalted his power to such a degree, that it would admit of question, whether the king or the primate was the first man in the kingdom.

3. During the preceding reign, the power of the clergy had increased to a most exorbitant height; they were also extremely corrupt in their morals, and committed with impunity the most enormous crimes. We are told that it was proved in the presence of the king, that since his accession, more than 100 murders had been perpetrated by ecclesiastics, not

one of whom had been punished.

4. Henry resolved to restrain the authority, and reform the abuses of the clergy, and for this purpose, he framed the Constitutions of Clarendon; but he experienced from Becket the most determined resistance, After a long series of contests with the haughty primate, the king was, on a certain

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occasion, so exasperated by his audacious conduct, that he rashly exclaimed, "What! among all those whom I have obliged, is there none who will avenge me of that insolent priest?" The words were scarcely spoken, when four knights of the king's household set out with a resolution to avenge the wrongs of their sovereign. They pursued the prelate into the cathedral, and assassinated him before the altar.

5. The account of this transaction filled Henry with consternation, and caused great excitement in England. Becket died a martyr to ecclesiastical authority, and the manner of his death effected the triumph of his cause. He was canonized by the pope as a saint, by the title of St. Thomas of Canterbury, and numerous miracles were pretended to be wrought at his tomb, which became a celebrated resort of pilgrims, 100,000 of whom are said to have been present at a

jubilee which was observed once in 50 years.

6. Henry publicly expressed his sorrow for having used the rash words which had occasioned the death of the primate, and expiated his offence by a humiliating penance at his tomb. Having approached within three miles of Canterbury, he dismounted, walking barefoot over the flinty road, which, in some places, he marked with blood, to the consecrated spot, spent there, in fasting and prayer, a day and night, and even presented his bare shoulders to be scourged

by the monks with a knotted cord.

7. The latter part of Henry's life furnishes a memorable instance of royal infelicity, and affords an instructive lesson how little outward greatness and advantages contribute toward solid happiness; and that one of the greatest of kings may be one of the most miserable of men. His wretchedness was, in a great measure, occasioned by his own vices, and particularly by his cherishing illicit love for many women, one of whom was Rosamond Clifford, who, under the title of the Fair Rosamond, is described as the most beautiful woman ever seen in England, and who made a conspicuous figure in the ballads and romances of the times.

8. This unrestrained indulgence of the king so irritated his queen, that she sought revenge by instigating his four sons, when they had scarcely arrived at manhood, to revolt against him. Assisted by the king of France, they engaged in a series of rebellions, with a design to wrest the crown from their father; so that he was at last forsaken by his friends,

his wife, and his children.

9. Henry had manifested for his children, in their more early years, an affection bordering on excess; and when he

at last found that his youngest and favorite son John, like all the rest, had joined the confederacy against him, he felt that his cup of affliction was full; gave himself up to transports of ungovernable grief; cursed the day of his birth; uttered imprecations against his sons which he could never be prevailed upon to retract; and, worn out with cares, disappointments, and sorrows, died of a broken heart.

10. Henry is ranked among the ablest and most useful sovereigns that have occupied the throne of England; and he governed his kingdom much better than his own passions. He was distinguished both as a warrior and a statesman; possessed many brilliant, and some amiable qualities; yet pride and passion, caution and duplicity, were prominent features

in his character.

- 11. He was a patron of the arts, particularly of Gothic architecture; and his reign is remarkable for being the period when many of the sumptuous English edifices were erected, and also for the introduction of various improvements with regard to the conveniences and comforts of life. The arts of luxury, however, were yet in a rude state. Glass windows were regarded as a mark of extraordinary magnificence; and the houses of the citizens of London were constructed of wood, covered with thatch, with windows of lattice or paper; they had no chimneys; and the floors were covered with straw.
- 12. The description of the magnificence displayed by Becket, while he was chancellor of the kingdom, will afford some idea of the rude state of the arts. Nobody, it is said by contemporary writers, equalled him in refinement and splendor. "Every day, in winter, his apartments were strewed with clean straw or hay, and in summer, with rushes or leaves, that those who came to pay their court to him, might not soil their fine clothes by sitting on a dirty floor."
- 13. Richard I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, or Lion-hearted, who succeeded his father, Henry II., commenced his reign by a cruel persecution of the Jews. The frenzy for the crusades was, at this period, at its height in Europe. To a prince of the adventurous spirit and military talents of Richard, these enterprises presented irresistible attractions; and after making preparation, he, in connection with Philip Augustus of France, embarked on an expedition to the Holy Land. They took Acre in concert, and Richard especially acquired great renown by his exploits, and defeated the heroic Sal'adin in

the battle of Ascalon, in which about 40,000 of the Saracems were slain.

14. On his voyage homeward, being shipwrecked, he disguised himself, with an intention of travelling through Germany; but he was discovered, and imprisoned by the emporor. He was ransomed by his subjects for the sum of £300,000, and after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions; but he died, not long after, of a wound which he received at the siege of the castle of *Chaluz*, in France, belonging to one of his rebellious vassals.

15. Richard, who has been styled the Achilles of modern history, was preëminent for his valor, which was almost his only merit. Even a century after his death, his name was employed by the Saracen cavalier to chide his horse, and by the Saracen mother to terrify her children. His ambition, tyranny, and cruelty, were scarcely inferior to his valor; his laurels were steeped in blood, and his victories were purchas-

ed with the impoverishment of his people.

16. Richard was succeeded by his brother John, who is supposed to have murdered his nephew Arthur, who was the son of Geoffrey, an elder brother, and the rightful heir. Philip Augustus of France supported the claim of Arthur to the throne; and, on account of his being murdered, he stripped the English monarch of his possessions in that country. In consequence of this loss of his territories, John received the surname of Lackland.

17. John excited against himself the displeasure of Innocent III., the haughty and tyrannical pontiff, who proceeded to lay the kingdom under an interdict, and afterwards excommunicated the king, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. The wretched monarch was intimidated into submission, and on his knees solemnly surrendered his kingdom to the holy see, consenting to hold it as the pope's vassal. In this manner, he made peace with the church, but he brought upon himself the universal contempt and hatred of his people.

19. The barons, under the direction of Langton, the primate, formed a confederacy, and demanded of the king a ratification of a charter of privileges. John, bursting into a furious passion, refused their demand. They immediately proceeded to open war; and the king, finding himself deserted, was compelled to yield. He met his barons at Runny-mede, and after a debate of a few days, signed and sealed

thre famous deed of Magna Charta, or the Great Charter, which secured important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom; and which is regarded as the great bulwark of English liberty. John granted, at the same time, the Charter of the Forest, which abolished the exclusive right of the king to kill game all over the kingdom.

19. The character of John is represented as more odious than that of any other English monarch; debased by every vice, with scarcely a single redeeming virtue. His reign, though most unhappy and disastrous, is, notwithstanding,

memorable as the era of the dawn of English freedom.

20. Henry III. succeeded to the throne at the age of only nine years, under the guardianship of the Earl of Pembroke. He was a weak monarch, timid in danger, presumptuous in prosperity, and governed by unworthy favorites. His lot was cast in a turbulent period of English history, and his long reign of 56 years, consisted of a series of internal conflicts, though it was little disturbed by foreign war.

21. The incapacity of the king was more productive of inconvenience to himself, than of misery to his subjects. Under his weak but pacific sway, the cause of popular freedom was advanced, and the nation grew more rapidly in wealth and prosperity, than it had done under his military and more

renowned predecessors.

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22. Towards the latter part of the reign of Henry, the barons, with Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, at their head, entered into a confederacy to seize the reins of government; and they compelled Henry to delegate the regal power to 24 of their number. These divided among themselves all the offices of government, and new modeled the parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights, chosen from each county.

23. This measure proved fatal to the power of the barons; for the knights, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, concerted a plan for restoring the king. A civil war ensued. Leicester, at the head of a formidable force, defeated the royal army at Lewes, and made both the king and his son Edward, prisoners. He compelled the feeble king to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; assumed the character of regent, and called a parliament, summoning two knights from each shire, and deputies from the principal boroughs. This is regarded as the era of the commencement of the House of Commons, being the first time that representatives to parliament were sent from the boroughs.

24. Prince Edward, having at length regained his liberty took the field against Leicester, and defeated him with great slaughter, in the famous battle of Evesham. In this battle Leicester himself was killed, and Henry, by the assistance of his son, was again placed on the throne.

25. Edward I., surnamed Longshanks, from the length of his legs, on succeeding to the throne, caused 280 Jews in London to be hanged at once, on a charge of having corrupted the coin; and 15,000 were robbed of their effects, and banished from the kingdom. He soon after undertook to subdue Wales, and having defeated and slain the sovereign prince Llevellyn, he annexed the country to the crown of England. He created his oldest son Prince of Wales, a title which has ever since been borne by the oldest sons of the English monarchs.

26. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. On the death of Alexander III., who left no son, *Bruce* and *Baliol* were competitors for the throne of Scotland, and Edward was chosen umpire to decide the contest between the two rivals. He adjudged the crown to Baliol, who engaged to hold it as a vassal of the

king of England.

27. Baliol, however, soon afterwards renounced his allegiance; hence arose a war between England and Scotland, which lasted, with little intermission, upwards of 70 years; and drenched both kingdoms with blood. Edward invaded Scotland with a large army; defeated the Scots with great slaughter in the battle of *Dunbar*; subdued the kingdom:

and Baliol was carried captive to London.

28. While Edward was prosecuting a war in France, the Scots were roused to exertion, for the recovery of their independence, by their renowned hero, Sir William Wallace; but after gaining a series of victories, they were at length defeated by the king of England, with immense loss, in the battle of Falkirk. Wallace became a prisoner of Edward, who put him to death, with the most barbarous cruelty. The Scots found a second champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, grandson of the competitor of Baliol, who, having expelled the British from the country, was raised to the throne of his ancestors. Edward prepared to make a new invasion with an immense army, but died after having advanced as far as Carlisle.

- 29. Elward, who was one of the greatest of the English sovereigns, was eminent as a warrior; and on account of his wisdom as a legislator, he has been styled the English Justinian. But he was, in disposition, a tyrant, and as often as he dared, trampled on the liberties, or invaded the property of his subjects. He was, however, admired by his contemporaries, and his barons respected the arbitrary sway of a monarch as violent and haughty as themselves. His reign was highly advantageous to the kingdom, particularly for the improvements made in the national code, and the administration of justice. He repeatedly ratified Magna Charta, and an important clause was added to secure the people from the imposition of any tax without the consent of parliament. Ever since that time, there has been a regular succession of English parliaments.
- 30. Edward II., surnamed of Caernarvon, from the place of his birth, soon after succeeding to the throne, in compliance with his father's dying injunction, invaded Scotland, with an army of 100,000 men, which was met at Bannockburn by 30,000 Scots, under their king Robert Bruce. A great battle ensued, in which the English sustained a more disastrous defeat, than they had experienced since the battle of Hastings.

31. Edward Π , who possessed little of the character of his father, was of a mild disposition, weak, indolent, fond of pleasure, and governed by unworthy favorites, the most famous of whom were *Gaveston* and the two *Spencers*. His inglorious reign was characterized by the corruption of the court, and by contests and war between the king and the barons; and his life was rendered unhappy by a series of mortifica-

tions and misfortunes.

32. Isabella, his infamous queen, fixed her affections, which had long been estranged from her husband, upon Mortimer, a powerful young baron, and she, together with her paramour, formed a conspiracy against the king, and compelled him to resign the crown to his son. He was then thrown into a prison, and afterwards murdered, by order of Mortimer, in a barbarous manner.

33. Edward III. succeeded to the throne at the age of 14 years. A council of regency, consisting of 12 persons, was appointed, during the minority of the king; yet Mortimer and Isabella possessed the chief control. But Edward, on coming

of age, could not endure the authority of a man who had caused the murder of his father, or of a mother stained with the foulest crimes. Mortimer was condemned by parliament, and hanged upon a gibbet; and Isabella was imprisoned for life at Castle Risings, and continued for 28 years a miserable monument of blasted ambition.

34. The king, soon after he was established on the throne, made war with the Scots, and defeated them with great slaughter, in the battle of *Halidown Hill*. On the death of *Charles IV*., he laid claim, in right of his mother, to the crown of France, which he attempted to gain by force of arms, in opposition to Philip of Valois, who was acknowledged by the French nation as the rightful heir. This claim involved the two countries in a long and sanguinary war.

35. After having made his preparations, Edward sailed from England with a powerful armament. His fleet, consisting of 250 sail, encountered that of France, amounting to 400 ships, off the coast of Flanders, and gained one of the greatest naval victories recorded in history. The loss of the English is stated at 4,000 men and 2 ships; that of the French, at 30,000 men

and 230 ships.

36. Edward then invaded France at the head of 30,000 troops; and in the famous battle of Cressy, gained a splendid victory over Philip, the French king, who had an army of upwards of 100,000 men, and whose loss exceeded 30,000. This battle is noted not only for the greatness of the victory, but also for being the first in English history in which cannon was made use of, and likewise for being the scene in which Edward the Black Prince, the king's eldest son, then only 16 years of age, commenced his brilliant military career.—Edward afterwards besieged and took Calais, which remained in the possession of the English till the time of queen Mary.

37. While the English monarch was in France, the Scots, under their king, David, invaded England, and were defeated at Neville's Cross, near Durham, by Philippa, Edward's heroic queen, and their king was led prisoner to London. Of

the four generals under the queen, three were prelates.

38. John, who succeeded his father in the throne of France, took the field with an army of 60,000 men, against the Black Prince, who, with only 16,000 troops, gained a signal victory at Poictiers. King John was taken prisoner, and led in triumph, by the victorious prince, to London, where he was kept a fellow captive with David of Scotland.

39. Edward, in the latter part of his reign, sunk into indolence and indulgence, and experienced a reverse of fortune.

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and before his death, all his conquests, with the exception of Calais, were wrested from him. His son, the Black Prince, (so called from the color or covering of his armor,) falling into a lingering consumption, was obliged to resign the command of the army; and Charles V. of France, an able sovereign, recovered most of the English possessions in that country. The death of the Black Prince, illustrious for his amiable virtues, as well as for his noble and heroic qualities, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who survived him only about a year.

40. Edward was the most powerful prince of his time in Europe, and in personal accomplishments, is said to have been superior to any of his predecessors. His domestic administration was, in many respects, excellent, and advantageous to his subjects. The astonishing victories, which cast so much military splendor on his reign, and which are accounted the most brilliant in English history, appear to have dazzled the eyes both of his subjects and foreigners, who placed him in the first rank of conquerors. But his wars with France and Scotland were unjust in their object; and after having caused great suffering and devastation, he at last found that the crowns of those kingdoms were beyond his reach.

41. In this reign, chivalry was at its zenith in England; and in all the virtues which adorned the knightly character, in courtesy, munificence, and gallantry, in all the delicate and magnanimous feelings, none were more conspicuous than Edward III. and his son the Black Prince. Their court was, as it were, the sun of that system, which embraced the valor and nobility of the Christian world.

42. Richard II., the unworthy son of Edward the Black Prince, succeeded to the throne, at the age of 11 years. He was indolent, prodigal, perfidious, and a slave to pleasure. The administration of the government, during the minority of the king, was intrusted to his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, whose contests embroiled all the public measures. Of these the Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, or Ghent (so named from the place of his birth), was the most distinguished, and was possessed of great wealth and power; but he became unpopular, particularly with the courtiers and clergy; and he was noted for being (probably for political reasons) the protector of Wickliffe, the Reformer, whose opposition to the tyranny and corruptions

of Rome commenced in the preceding reign, and gained him

many adherents.

43. A poll-tax of three groats, imposed by parliament upon every male and female above the age of 15 years, excited universal discontent among the lower classes, on account of its injustice, in requiring as much of the poor as of the rich. One of the brutal tax-gatherers, having demanded payment for a blacksmith's daughter, whom the father asserted to be below the age specified, was proceeding to improper familiarities with her, when the enraged father dashed out his brains with a hammer. The spectators applauded the action; a spirit of sedition spread through the kingdom; and 100,000 insurgents under Wat Tyler were soon assembled upon Blackheath. But the leader was slain, and his followers were finally compelled to submit.

44. V hile the kingdom was convulsed with domestic contests, it vas also engaged in hostilities with France and Scotland. At Otterburn was fought, between the English under Percy (surnamed Hotspur, on account of his fiery temper), and the Scotch under Douglas, a battle, in which Percy was taken prisoner, and Douglas was slain.—On this battle is

founded the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chace.

45. Richard unjustly banished his cousin Henry, the eldest son and heir of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; and on the death of the duke, he seized upon his estate: but the king having afterwards undertaken an expedition to Ireland, in order to quell an insurrection, Henry, the young duke, took advantage of his absence, returned to England, landed at Ravenspur, soon found himself at the head of a numerous army, and compelled Richard, on his return, to resign the crown. The king being generally detested, the parliament readily confirmed his deposition; he was then imprisoned, and afterwards murdered.

46. The Duke of Lancaster was raised to the throne with the title of *Henry IV*.; though *Edmund Mortimer* was the true heir to the crown, being descended from *Lionel*, the 3d son of Edward III.; whereas Henry was the son of *John of Gaunt*, the 4th son of Edward III.—Hence began contests between the houses of *York* and *Lancaster*.—During this reign and the preceding one, flourished *Chaucer*, who has been styled the Morning Star of English poetry.

SECTION V.

BRANCH OF LANCASTER.—Henry IV.; Henry V.; Henry VI.—From A. D. 1399 to 1461.

1. Henry IV., surnamed Bolingbroke, from the place of his birth, who succeeded to the throne by the deposition and murder of the lawful king, and the exclusion of the rightful heir, soon found that the throne of a usurper is but a bed of thorns. A combination was immediately formed against him. The Scots under Douglas, and the Welsh under Owen Glendower, took part with the rebels; but their united forces were defeated in a most desperate and bloody battle at Shrewsbury, and their leader, Percy [Hotspur], was killed.

2. While a subject, Henry was supposed to have imbibed the religious principles of his father, John of Gaunt, the patron of Wickliffe and his followers. But after he was raised to the throne, he made his faith yield to his interest: as he needed the support of the clergy, he procured their favor by endeavoring to suppress the opinions which his father had supported; and he has the unenviable distinction of having his name recorded in history, as the first English monarch that burnt his

subjects on account of religion.

3. Henry was distinguished for his military talents, and for his political sagacity; and had he succeeded to the throne by a just title, he might have been ranked as one of the greatest of English monarchs. He had been one of the most popular noblemen in the kingdom; yet, although his reign was, in many respects, beneficial to the nation, he became a most unpopular sovereign. His peace of mind was destroyed by jealousy and by remorse; he was an object of pity even when seated on the throne; and he felt the truth of the language which Shakspeare puts into his mouth; "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."

4. The latter part of his life was imbittered by the extreme profligacy of his son Henry, Prince of Wales. One of the prince's dissolute companions having been indicted before the chief justice. Sir William Gascoigne, for some misdemeanor, he was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, mindful of the dignity of his office, ordered the prince to be committed to prison. Henry quietly submitted, and acknowledged his

error.

- 5. When the circumstance was related to the king, he is said to have exclaimed, in a transport of joy, "Happy is the king who has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute the laws upon such an offender; still more happy in having a son willing to submit to such chastisement!"
- 6. Henry V., on succeeding to the throne, immediately assembled his former riotous companions; acquainted them with his intended reformation; forbade their appearance in his presence till they should imitate his example; and dismissed them with liberal presents. He commended the chief justice for his impartial conduct, and encouraged him to persevere in a strict execution of the laws. This victory which he gained over himself, is incomparably more honorable to him. than the martial exploits which have immortalized his name.

7. The Wickliffites, or Lollards, were now numerous in England, and had for their leader the famous Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, a nobleman of distinguished talents, and high in favor with the king. But Henry, in matters of religion, being under the influence of an intolerant clergy, and particularly of archbishop Arundel, gave up to the fury of his enemies the virtuous and gallant nobleman, who was condemned for heresy, hung up by the middle with a chain, and roasted alive.

8. Henry revived the claim to the crown of France; and taking advantage of disorders in that kingdom, invaded it with an army of about 15,000 men, and defeated the French army, amounting to 60,000 men, in the memorable battle of Agincourt. The loss of the French amounted to 11,000 killed, and 14,000 prisoners. Henry afterwards reduced all Normandy, was declared regent of France, and acknowledged heir to the crown. But death soon put an end to his career of victory.

9. Henry V. was one of the most heroic of the English sovereigns, eminent as a warrior, beloved and adored by military men; and his short reign is one of the most brilliant in English history for military achievement. But his conquests

were of no benefit to his people.

10. Henry VI. succeeded to the throne when an infant only nine months old, and was proclaimed king both of England and France. His education was intrusted to Cardinal Beaufort, brother of his grandfather Henry IV.; and his uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, were appointed protectors or guardians of his dominions, the former for France, and the latter for England.

11. Charles VII., the Dauphin, being supported by the French people, recovered the kingdom by degrees; and the English being compelled by that extraordinary heroine, Joan of Arc, to raise the siege of Orleans, were afterwards stripped of all their conquests in that country except Calais and Guienne.

12. Henry, on coming of age, proved himself to be mild and inoffensive, but totally incapable of managing the reins of government: "he would have adorned a cloister, though he disgraced a crown." He married Margaret of Anyou, a woman whose distinguished talents, ambition, and heroism, well fitted her to supply the defects of her hasband in the wars which distracted his reign; but her intriguing disposition and cruelty multiplied the number of her enemies.

13. Discontents prevailing among the people, an insurrection broke out, headed by Jack Cade, who assumed the name of John Mortimer, and collected an army of 20,000 rebels,

but he was defeated and slain.

14. The Duke of Gloucester, a favorite of the nation, the chief pillar of the house of Lancaster, and presumptive heir to the crown [that is, heir in case the king should die without issue], had opposed the marriage of Henry with Margaret From this circumstance, he became odious to the queen, and his death soon after took place in a suspicious manner. This event, added to the imbecility of the king, encouraged the Duke of York to assert his claim to the crown.

15. The houses of York and Lancaster were both descended from Edward III.; that of York from his 3d son, and that of Lancaster from his 4th: the rightful title was, of course, on the side of the former. Each party was distinguished by a particular badge or symbol; that of the house of York was a white rose, and that of Lancaster a red one; hence the civil contests were styled the wars of the Two Roses.

16. This fatal-quarrel, which now [1455] broke out into open hostilities, lasted 30 years, was signalized by 12 sanguinary pitched battles, and marked by the most unrelenting barbarity. During the contest, more than 100,000 of the bravest men of the nation, including 80 princes of the blood, fell on the field, or were executed on the scaffold.

17. In the battles of St. Alban's and Northampton, the Lancastrians were defeated, and the king was taken prisoner;

but queen Margaret, having collected a large army, gained the battle of Wakefield, in which the Duke of York was defeated and slain. But his son and successor, at the head of a numerous army, entered London, amidst the shouts of the citizens, and was proclaimed king, by the title of Edward IV

SECTION VI.

BRANCH OF YORK:—Edward IV.; Edward V.; Richard III.—From A. D. 1461 to 1485.

1. The new king was not permitted to enjoy the crown in peace. The heroic Margaret again collected an army of 60,000 men, which was met by the Yorkists, to the number of upwards of 40,000, under the command of Edward and the Earl of Warwick. A tremendous battle was fought at Towton, in which Edward obtained a decisive victory, and upwards of 36,000 Englishmen, slain by one another's hands, were left dead on the field.—Henry, having been taken prisoner, was confined in the Tower, and there, after being liberated, and a second time imprisoned, was finally murdered.

by the Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III.

2. The unfortunate queen, accompanied by her son, a boy eight years old, while flying from her enemies, was benighted in Hexham forest, and fell into the hands of ruffians, who stripped her of her jewels, and treated her with great indignity. After she was liberated from them, being overcome with fatigue and terror, she sunk in despair; but was suddenly roused by the approach of a robber, with a drawn sword. Sceing no way to escape, she rose and presented to him her child: "My friend," said she, "here is your king's son, whom I commit to your protection." The man, pleased with this unexpected confidence reposed in him, afforded every assistance in his power, and conducted the mother and son, through numerous perils, to a small sea-port, whence they sailed to Flanders.

3. The house of York had been hitherto supported by the important assistance of Nevil, Earl of Warwick, the most powerful baron in England, and the greatest general of his time. But Edward having given offence to his benefactor, Warwick was induced to abandon him, and to support the Lancastrians. By his exertions, Edward was deposed, and Henry, after having been a prisoner 6 years in the Tower,

was released, and again proclaimed king. Thus Warwick, having restored Henry, whom he had deposed, and pulled down Edward, whom he had placed on the throne, obtained

the title of king-maker.

4. But in the bloody battle of Barnet, Edward prevailed, and the brave Warwick was slain. The intrepid Margaret, having returned to England, made a last effort for the crown, in the desperate battle of Tewkesbury, which proved fatal to her hopes. Her son was slain, and she herself was taken prisoner; but was afterwards ransomed by the king of France, and in that country she passed the remainder of her life in obscurity and neglect.

- 5. Edward, being now secured on the throne, gave himself up to unrestrained indulgence in acts of tyranny, cruelty, and debauchery. His brother, the Duke of Clarence, who had assisted him in gaining the crown, he caused, with the concurrence of his other brother, the Duke of Gloucester, to be impeached and condemned; and he is said to have been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine.—Edward was possessed of talents, and was reputed the handsomest and most accomplished man of his time in England. The love of pleasure was his ruling passion. "His character," says an elegant writer, "is easily summed up:—his good qualities were cour age and beauty; his bad qualities, every vice."
- 6. Edward IV. left two sons, the eldest of whom, being only 13 years of age, was proclaimed king, by the title of Edward V. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, brother to Edward IV., being appointed protector, caused Lord Hastings, and other distinguished persons, to be executed without trial; seized the crown, on the pretence that his nephew, Edward V., and his brother, the Duke of York, were illegitimate; and procured himself to be proclaimed king, by the title of Richard III. After two months, the young princes disappeared, and are said to have been smothered in the Tower, by order of Richard.
 - 7. The multiplied and detestable crimes of Richard III., who waded to the throne through the blood of his nearest relations, found an avenger in the Earl of Richmond, the only surviving heir of the house of Lancaster. The armies of the two rivals met at Bosworth, where a desperate battle was fought, which, by reason of Lord Stanley's going over to Richmond proved fatal to Richard, who was defeated and

slain; and his rival was crowned on the field by the title of *Henry VII*. This battle terminated the long and bloody conflicts between the two houses of York and Lancaster, which had reduced the kingdom to a state of almost savage barbarity; laws, arts, and commerce, being entirely neglected for the practice of arms.

8. Richard, who was a man of talents and courage, could conceal the most bloody projects under the mask of affection and friendship; and his insatiable ambition led him to perpetrate the most atrocious crimes. He had a harsh and disagreeable countenance, was crook-backed, splay-footed, and had his left arm withered; so that the deformity of his body corresponded to that of his mind.

SECTION VII.

THE TUDOR FAMILY:—Henry VII.; Henry VIII.; Edward VI.; Mary; Elizabeth.—From A. D. 1485 to 1603.

1. The hereditary right of *Henry VII*. to the crown was very defective; but he strengthened his claim by marrying *Elizabeth*, daughter of Edward IV.; and in this way the two houses of York and Lancaster were united. Henry was the son of *Margaret*, great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt; and of *Edmund Tudor*. The sovereigns of the house of *Tudor* were arbitrary in their principles and character: but their reign, though disturbed by conflicts, both domestic and foreign, was, notwithstanding, less convulsed by war, than that

of any other family of English kings.

2. The policy of Henry was pacific, and his reign was comparatively tranquil; yet it was disturbed by several plots and conspiracies, two of which were of a singular character. One of these was the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the Earl of Warwick; the other was a similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck, to counterfeit the Duke of York, who is said to have been smothered in the Tower, by the order of Richard III. By the earlier English historians, Warbeck is uniformly represented to have been an impostor, but several later writers maintain that he was the real son of Edward IV.

3. Both of the adventurers aspired to the crown, and met with considerable support from the people. Simnel, after being proclaimed king of England and Ireland, at Dublin,

was taken prisoner, and instead of being executed, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards promoted to be falconer. Perkin Warbeck, who maintained his cause by force of arms for five years, was supported by many of the nobility, and acknowledged by the kings of France and Scotland; but being at last taken prisoner, he was executed as a traitor; and near the same time, the real Earl of Warwick, the son of the Duke of Clarence, and nephew of Edward IV., the last ale of the Plantagenets, who had been imprisoned from his chill hood, for no other-crime than his birth, was condemned and excuted on a charge of treason.

4. Hen. v VII. was more deficient in the feelings of the neart, than in the qualities of the mind; and though much respected, was little beloved. He was wholly devoted to business: prudent and sagacious; little susceptible of the social and renerous affections; serious and reserved in his manners, suspicious in his temper, despotic in his government, and avaricious in his disposition—the love of money being is ruling passion. He was capable of descending to the meanest artifices, and of employing the most unprincipled agents in extorting money from his subjects, to fill his own Empson and Dudley, two lawyers, gained an infamous notoriety as instruments of his rapacity and oppression. By his frugality and arbitrary exactions, he accumulated immense wealth, and is said to have left at his death, in ready money, the sum of £1,800,000, equal to £10,000,000 at present.

5. His reign was prosperous at home, and respected aboacand though not a popular sovereign, he was, perhaps, next to Alfred, the most useful prince, that had hitherto sat on the throne of England. He enacted many wise and salutary laws; promoted industry; encouraged commerce; reduced to subordination a factious and insolent aristocracy; and taught the peaceful arts of civilized life to a warlike and tur-

bufent people.

6. By permitting the nobles to alienate their lands, he weakened their power, raised the respectability of the lower orders, and gave a mortal wound to the feudal system. He expended £14,000 in building one ship, named "the Great Harry," which may be considered as the beginning of the English navy; inasmuch as the government, before this period, had no other mode of raising a fleet, than by hiring or pressing the vessels of merchants.

7. No monarch ever succeeded to the throne of England with brighter prospects than *Henry VIII*. Uniting in his person the claims of the two houses of York and Lancaster, his title was undisputed: the treasury was well stored, the nation at peace, and the state of the country prosperous. He was 18 years of age, of beautiful person, accomplished manners, frank and open in his disposition, possessed of considerable learning, and fine talents; and was regarded by the

people with affection and high expectations.

8. But these fond expectations were wofully disappointed. As the character of the king developed itself, he was found to be destitute both of wisdom and virtue, and proved himself an unprincipled and cruel tyrant, rapacious and prodigal, obstinate and capricious, fickle in his friendships, and merciless in his resentments, and capable of sending a minister or a wife to the scaffold with as little feeling or compunction, as he would have shown in ordering a dog to be drowned "If all the pictures and patterns of a merciless prince," says Sir Walter Raleigh, "were lost in the world, they might all again be painted to the life out of the story of this king."

9. His government was but little short of a despotism; and one of the greatest wonders respecting it, is the degrading servility of the people and parliament, in tamely submitting to his tyranny, or becoming the passive instruments of its excreise. He chose for his ministers men of eminent talents, but he made them feel the effects of his caprice and cruelty. Archbishop Cranmer was almost the only one of great distinction among them, who had the good fortune to retain, to

the last, his confidence and regard.

10. By his profusion and expensive pleasures, he soon exhausted the treasures which he inherited from his father. Though his military operations were not numerous, yet, in the early part of his reign, he made war against Louis XII. of France, invaded the country, and, at Guinegast, gained the battle of the Spurs, (so named from the rapid flight of the French;) and his general, the Earl of Surrey, gained a bloody victory over the Scots, at Flodden, where James IV., and a great part of his nobility, were slain. Henry was also, in some degree, involved in the wars of the two great rivals of the age, Charles V. of Germany, and Francis I. of France.

11. Before he arrived at the age of 30, he wrote a book on the Seven Sacraments, against *Luther*, the Reformer, which pleased the pope so much, that he conferred on him the title of "Defender of the Faith;" a title which his successors have

ever since retained.

12. But the most memorable transactions of Henry's reign were his matrimonial alliances, and the consequences which flowed from them. His first wife was Catharine of Arragon, widow of his elder brother Arthur, daughter of Ferdinand of Spain, and aunt of Charles V. He had been contracted to her at a very early age, by the influence of his father; and after having lived with her about 18 years, he professed to feel conscientious scruples respecting the lawfulness of the marriage, on account of her having been the wife of his brother; and conceiving a passion for the beautiful and accomplished Anne Boleyn, he applied to the pope for a divorce.

13. Having experienced various delays, and imagining that his favorite minister, the celebrated Cardinal Wolsey, was the chief obstacle in the way of effecting his object, the king resolved on his ruin, and ordered him to be arrested for high treason. But the haughty cardinal soon after fell sick and died, having exclaimed in the pangs of remorse; "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would

not have given me over in my gray hairs."

14. The opinions of various universities, favorable to Henry's views, having been obtained, and the pope failing to grant the divorce, the king caused a court to be held under *Cranmer*, which pronounced his marriage invalid; and lady Anne was soon after crowned queen. The papal jurisdiction in England was immediately abolished; the monasteries suppressed; some alterations made in the doctrines and forms of religion; and the king was declared the Supreme Head of

the English Church.

15. The separation of England from the Church of Rome, was thus begun by the passions of a prince, who meant nothing in the world less than the Reformation of religion, which was the consequence of it; and who was a most unworthy instrument of a most important event. Though Henry ceased to be a Roman Catholic, he was far from being a Protestant. He arrogated infallibility to himself, and caused the law of the Six Articles of religion, termed the "bloody statute," to be enacted, and condemned to death both Catholics and Protestants who ventured to maintain opinions in opposition to his own. The venerable Bishop Fisher and the celebrated Sir Thomas More were beheaded, for refusing to acknowledge his supremacy.

16. In less than three years after his new marriage, he caused Anne Boleyn to be condemned and beheaded, in order to gratify a new passion for *Jane Seymour*, whom he married

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the day after the execution; and who died soon after giving birth to Prince Edward. He next married Anne of Cleves, but soon discarded her, because he did not find her so handsonie as she had been represented; and Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex, his prime minister, having been instrumental in bringing about this joyless marriage, lost the favor of his sovereign, and suffered death on the scaffold. Catharine Howard, whom he next married, was condemned and executed for adultery. But Catharine Parr, his 6th wife, had the good fortune to survive him.

17. Henry VIII. left three children, Mary, daughter of Catharine of Arragon, Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn, and Edward, son of Jane Seymour. The last succeeded him, with the title of Edward VI., in his 10th year, Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, uncle of the young king, being appointed protector; and after his fall, the Duke of Northumberland was raised to the same office. Edward's short reign was distracted by contests between those to whom the direction of public affairs was intrusted; but the Protestant influence prevailed in the government, the cause of the Reformation was promoted, and the reformed liturgy was modelled under the direction of Cranmer; yet a great part of the people were still attached to the Catholic faith.

18. Edward, a prince of great hopes and virtues, died in his 16th year, deeply lamented. So different was his character from that of his father, that he is said never to have signed an order for an execution against any person, without shedding tears. Just before his death, he had been prevailed upon, by the interested influence and intrigues of the Duke of Northumberland, the protector, to set aside his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and bequeath the crown to Jane Grey, great-granddaughter of Henry VII, who was married to Lord

Guilford Dudley, a son of the protector.

19. Notwithstanding the attempt to alter the succession, Mary, who was a bigoted and intolerant Catholic, was acknowledged the rightful heir, and succeeded to the throne; and the Catholic religion was again restored. Her short reign is noted for the cruel persecution of the English Reformers; and her character is painted by Protestant writers in the darkest colors; but it may be remarked, by way of apology for her, that the treatment which both she and her mother had received from those who rejected the papal supremacy, was calculated to inflame her prejudices; that she

was under the influence of evil counsellors; and that she lived in an age when the principles of religious toleration were not understood or practised by either Catholics or Protestants.

20. Immediately after the death of Edward, Jane Grey, who had been appointed successor, by the intrigues of her friends, was proclaimed queen by her adherents; but after wearing the crown ten days, she resigned it, and would gladly have returned to private life. The youth and innocence of herself and her husband (neither of them exceeding their 17th year) pleaded strongly in their favor; yet they were condemned and beheaded; as also were their principal supporters.

21. Lady Jane, who is described as a young woman of singular virtues and accomplishments, sent, on the day of her execution, a message to her husband, who desired to see her, informing him that the tenderness of their last interview would be too much for her to bear. "Tell him," added she, "that our separation will be only for a moment. We shall soon meet each other in a place where our affections shall be forever united, and where misfortunes will never more disturb

our eternal felicity."

22. A cruel persecution was now commenced against the Reformers; the men who had been most forward in establishing the Protestant religion in England, were singled out for punishment; and among the most eminent martyrs who were burnt at Smithfield, were Cranmer, Latimer, Ridicy, Hooper, Ferrar, and Rogers. By the cruelty of these proceedings, the feelings of the people were shocked; the excellent character of most of the sufferers, and the undaunted spirit which they exhibited, produced a strong sensation in their favor, and diminished the influence of the church of Rome; so that these barbarities tended to forward, rather than to check the progress of the Reformation.

23. Mary, in the second year after she succeeded to the throne, was married to *Philip II*. of Spain, a union unpopular with her subjects, and productive of little happiness to herself; and in the last year of her reign, the French took *Calais*, which had been in possession of the English 210 years. Soon after this event, the queen died, feeling bitter vexation for the loss, and for being aware that she was an object of aversion to her husband and to a great part of her subjects. She left few to lament her, and there was scarcely the semblance of

sorrow for her death.

21. The accession of *Elizabeth* to the throne, was hailed by the nation with joyful acclamations. She had a long and

auspicious reign, during which tranquillity was maintained in her dominions, while the neighboring nations were convulsed with dissensions; and England rose from the rank of a secondary kingdom, to a level with the first states of Europe. The Protestant religion was again restored and protected; the church of England was established in its present form; and the nation attained a higher state of prosperity than it had ever before known, in agriculture, commerce, arts, and literature. This reign, which some have considered as the Augustan age of English literature, was illustrated by the great names of Hooker, Bacon, Spenser, and Shakspeare.

25. A remarkable circumstance in this period of English history relates to the repeated and sudden changes with respect to religion, in accordance with the views of the sovereign and the court. Many who had been Protestants under Edward, became persecuting Romanists under Mary; and under Elizabeth, they were again transformed into zealous promoters of the Reformation. Religion, it would seem, hung so loose upon a great part, that they were equally ready to conform to popery or protestantism, as might best suit their temporal interests. Of 9,000 beneficed clergymen, the number of those who preferred, on the accession of Elizabeth, to quit their preferments rather than popery, was less than 200.

26. Elizabeth is charged with treachery and cruelty in her treatment of Mary, Queen of Scots, a woman whose extraordinary beauty and misfortunes seem, in the minds of many, to have thrown a veil over all the defects of her character. Mary was great-granddaughter of Henry VII., and next heir to Elizabeth to the throne of England. She had been educated in France as a Catholic, and married, when very young, to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. She had been persuaded, imprudently, to assume the title of queen of England. a circumstance which proved fatal to her peace.

27. On the death of Francis, she returned to Scotland, at

the age of 18 years. At this period the Reformation, by the zealous labors of John Knoz, had made great progress in that country; and the people regarded their Catholic queen with abhorrence, and looked to her enemy Elizabeth for support.

28. Mary married, for her second husband, her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, who soon became disagreeable to her, and was not long afterwards murdered; she then married the Earl of Bothwell, who was stigmatized as the murderer of Darnley. Her conduct excited against her the whole kingdom of Scotland; and, being deserted by her followers

she was at length compelled to resign the crown to her infant son, who was proclaimed James VI.; and her illegitimate brother, the Earl of Murray, a friend to the Reformation, was appointed regent during the young king's minority.

29. Encouraged by the plausible professions of Elizabeth, Mary was induced to take refuge in England, appealing to the queen as umpire between herself and her subjects. After being detained a p-isoner 18 years, in Fotheringay Castle, she was condemned and beheaded in one of the rooms of her

prison, in the 45th year of her age.

30. Elizabeth warmly espoused the cause of the Netherlands, in their revolt against the authority of Philip II. of Spain; and her admiral, Sir Francis Drake, had taken some of the Spanish possessions in South America. To avenge these offences, and to subjugate the leading Protestant power, the Spanish "Invincible Armada," a more formidable fleet than Europe had ever before witnessed, was fitted out for the invasion of England.

31. This armament consisted of 150 ships, 3,000 pieces of cannon, and 27,000 men. It entered the English channel in the form of a crescent, extending its two extremities to the distance of seven miles. It was met by the English fleet, consisting of 108 ships, commanded by those distinguished maritime chiefs, *Howard*, *Drake*, *Hawkins*, *Frobisher*, and *Raleigh*. Being gradually weakened, and finally overtaken by a storm, it suffered an entire defeat. Only 50 vessels,

with 6,000 men, returned to Spain.

32. The age of Elizabeth was fruitful in rien of talents, and she was assisted in her government by eminent statesmen, among whom were Bacon, Burleigh, and Walsingham, men wholly devoted to the interests of the nation. But her chief personal favorites were unworthy. Of these, in the early part of her reign, the principal was Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester: after his death, Robert Devcreuz, Earl of Essex, a young nobleman of accomplishments, talents, and high spirit, possessed the first place in her affections. The queen and Essex had many quarrels and reconciliations; at last he broke into open rebellion, was convicted of treason, and beheaded.

33. Elizabeth, who had surprised the nations of Europe by the splendor of her course, was destined to close the evening of her life in gloom and sorrow. Some ascribe the deep depression and mental suffering which she, at this period, endured, 'o the noglect which she imagined she experienced on

account of her age and infirmities, when, to use her own expression, "men would turn their backs on the setting, to worship the rising sun;" others to the revival of her regret for the death of Essex, whom she had given up for his invincible obstinacy, but who, she now discovered, had actually thrown himself upon her clemency, while his enemies had found means to conceal his application. The counters of Nottingham, now upon her death-bed (according to various historians), sent for the queen, to confess to her that Essex, while under the sentence of death, had desired her to convey to Elizabeth a ring which she had given him, with the assurance that the sight of it would at any time recall her tenderness; but that she had neglected to deliver it. The queen, in a frenzy of passion, shook the dying countess, exclaiming; "God may forgive you, but I never can." From that moment she sunk into a deep melancholy, rejected all sustenance, and died in profound grief, in the 45th year of her reign, and the 70th of her age.

34. Elizabeth was distinguished for her learning, and spoke fluently Greek, Latin, French, and Spanish. She possessed extraordinary talents for government, was great as a public character, and commanded the high respect of her subjects and of foreign nations. Her three leading maxims of policy were, to secure the affections of her subjects, to be frugal of her treasures, and to excite dissensions among her enemies. She manifested less regard for the liberty, than for the prosperity of the people. In the former part of her reign, she was comparatively moderate and humble; but afterwards haughty and severe. Both her disposition and her principles were despotic. With regard to religion, she persecuted both Catholics and Puritans; but, like her father, she had a leaning towards Rome in almost every thing except the doctrine of

35. Her private character is less to be admired, being tarnished with insincerity and cruelty, and destitute of the milder and softer virtues of her sex. Her manners were haughty and overbearing, and her conversation grossly profane. Vain of her beauty, which she only could discover; delighted with the praise of her charms, even at the age of 65; jealous of every female competitor, to a degree which the youngest and

every female competitor, to a degree which the youngest and silliest of her sex might despise; and subject to sallies of anger which no sense of dignity could restrain; she furnishes a remarkable instance of great moral weaknesses united with

high intellect al superiority.

papal supremacy.

SECTION VIII.

THE STUART FAMILY:—James I.; Charles I.:—The Commonwealth; Cromwell:—Charles II.; James II.; William and Mary; Anne:—From A. D. 1603 to 1714.

1. Elizabeth, on the approach of death, nominated for her successor, the son of her rival Mary, James VI. of Scotland, who was the rightful heir by descent. He took the title of James I. of England; and in him the two crowns were united. He was the first of the Stuarts, a family whose reign was one continued struggle for power between the monarch and the people; and who were characterized by despotic principles, injudicious conduct, and such a want of gratitude and good faith, as to be proverbial for leaving their friends in distress.

2. James had scarcely arrived in England, when a conspiracy was discovered for subverting the government, and placing on the throne his cousin Arabella Stuart. The celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been distinguished in the preceding reign, was sentenced to death on an accusation of being connected in this plot. He was, however, reprieved, cast into prison, and 15 years after his condemnation, was, at the instigation of the king, barbarously beheaded.

3. Another conspiracy followed, of a more daring nature This was the famous Gunpowder Plot, a design of some desperate Catholics to blow up the parliament house, and involve it one common destruction, the king, lords, and commons. Just on the eve of its accomplishment, the plot was discovered, and Guy Fawkes was taken with matches, for firing the

magazine, in his pocket.

4. It was the characteristic weakness of James to attach himself to worthless favorites; such were Carre, Earl of Somerset, and Villiers, Duke of Buckingham; men on whom he bestowed his favors with the utmost prodigality, though they were of profligate character, odious to the people, and were possessed of no merit, except external beauty and superficial accomplishments.

5. During the reign of Mary, the *Puritans* first made their appearance; and in the time of Elizabeth they became, in a considerable degree, conspicuous. They were strenuous advocates for freedom in the state, and a more thorough reformation in religion. At the accession of James, they cherish-

ed high hopes that their views would meet with n.ore favor, than during the reign of the late queen, inasmuch as he had been educated in Presbyterianism: but of all persons they were the most disappointed. So great was their dissatisfaction, that some of them sought refuge, from their restraints and persecutions, in the wilds of America, and commenced the settlement of New England.

6. The leading characteristic of James, was his love of arbitrary power. The divine right of kings to govern their subjects without control, was his favorite topic in conversation, and in his speeches to parliament. The best part of his character was his pacific disposition; and his reign, which lasted 22 years, though ignoble to himself, was, in many respects happy to his people, who were enriched by peace and

commerce.

7. In his private character, his morals were far from being pure. He possessed considerable ingenuity, and a good deal of learning, but more pedantry. He blended a childish and degrading familiarity so incongruously with a ridiculous vanity, insufferable arrogance, and a vulgar stateliness, that he reminds us more of some mock king in a farce, than a real one on the theatre of history. He was excessively fond of flattery, which was dealt out to him with an unsparing hand by his bishops and parasites, who styled him the British Solomon; yet in the opinion of less interested observers, he merited the appellation given him by the Duke of Sully, that of "the wisest fool in Europe." "He was," says bishop Burnet, "the scorn of the age, a mere pedant, without true judgment, courage, or steadiness, his reign being a continued course of mean practices."

8. The increase of commerce, and consequent influx of wealth; the diffusion of information; the little respect cherished for the personal character of the king; the disappointed hopes of the Puritans, the multiplication of their numbers, the controversies in which they were engaged, and the privations to which they were subjected; all conspired to diffuse widely the spirit of liberty. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the people, and to a retrenchment of the power of the sovereign; and during this reign the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance to despotic power, on the part of the people, which,

in the next, produced a subversion of the monarchy.

9. Charles I. ascended the throne in his 25th year, under favor ble circumstances: his title was undisputed, and the

kingdom was in a flourishing condition. But within the last fifty years, public opinion in the nation had undergone a great change, and many of his subjects were extremely jealous of their civil and religious liberties, and would no longer be governed by precedents which had their origin in times of ignorance and slavery. He soon gave proof that he inherited the same arbitrary principles with his father, and the same worthless favorite, Buckingham, retained his influence and authority.—He married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, who was a zealous papist, and whose influence over the king, is regarded as one of the principal causes of his calamities.

10. In the latter part of the reign of James, Charles, accompanied by Buckingham, had visited the court of Madrid, in order to solicit the hand of the *Infanta* in marriage. The negotiation, however, failed through the misconduct of Buckingham, and England was involved in a war with Spain. Soon after Charles ascended the throne, he was offended with the parliament for refusing to grant him sufficient supplies in carrying on this war, and for resisting his arbitrary designs; and having adopted the resolution to rule without their aid, he proceeded to levy money, in various ways, independent of

their authority.

11. One of these methods was by a tax on merchandise, called tonnage and poundage, and another by a tax called ship-money. The money raised by the latter, was now revied not only on seaport towns, but over the whole kingdom, and Charles elaimed the right to command his subjects, without an act of parliament, to provide and furnish ships, together with men, victuals, and ammunition, in such numbers, and at whatever time he should think proper—a claim which struck at the vital principle of a free government. This assessment of ship-money is the famous tax which first roused the whole nation, at length, to fix and determine, after a long continuance of an unsettled constitution, the bounds of their own freedom, and the king's prerogative.

12. A noble stand was made against the payment of this imposition by John Hampden, a man who, on account of his high character for talents, integrity, and patriotism, possessed the greatest influence in parliament, and in the nation. But, although the venal judges decided the cause against him, yet he obtained the end for which he sacrificed his quiet and his safety: the people, believing that the decision was unjust, were roused from their lethargy, and became fully sensible of the

danger to which their liberties were exposed.

13. The Duke of Buckingham having been assassinated by Felton, an Irish fanatic, the Earl of Strafford, the most able and devoted champion of the claims of the crown, and the most formidable enemy of the liberties of the people, became the chief counsellor of the king, and Archbishop Laud had the principal influence in ecclesiastical affairs. The current of the public sentiment was now running strongly towards Puritanism, in favor of a simpler form of worship. But Laud, so far from countenancing this tendency, had overloaded the church with new ceremonies, which were disgusting to the people, and which he enforced with the most intolerant zeal.

14. Not satisfied with attempting to enforce conformity in England, the king undertook to establish episcopacy in Scotland also; and to impose the use of the English liturgy upon the national church. This measure excited a strong sensation among all ranks, from the peer to the peasant: even the women were not backward in manifesting opposition. one of the churches of Edinburgh, on the day when the introduction of the liturgy was first attempted, no sooner had the service begun, than an old woman, impelled by sudden indignation, started up, and exclaiming aloud against the supposed mass, threw the stool, on which she had been sitting, at the preacher's head. The assembly was instantly in confusion, nor could the minister finish the service. The people from without burst open the doors, broke the windows, and rent the air with exclamations of "A pope, an antichrist; stone him, stone him."

15. The prelates were equally unsuccessful, in most instances, throughout Scotland, in enforcing the liturgy. The National Covenant, which was first framed at the Reformation, and which renounced episcopacy as well as popery, was renewed, and subscribed by all ranks; and afterwards a new bond, of similar purport, but still more determined and hostile in its spirit, styled the Solemn League and Covenant, was formed and signed by many in England as well as in Scotland, who combined together for their mutual defence.

16. After eleven years' intermission, the king found it necessary, in 1640, to convoke a parliament; but the house of commons, instead of listening to his demands for supplies, began with presenting the public grievances, under three heads—those of the broken privileges of parliament, of illegal taxes, and of violence done to the cause of religion. Charles perceiving he had nothing favorable to hope from their deliberations, soon lisso ved the assembly. By another parlia-

ment, which was not long afterwards assembled Strafford and Laud were sent to the Tower on several charges of endeavoring to subvert the constitution, and to introduce arbitrary power. Strafford was brought to trial on a charge of treason, and was condemned and beheaded; and five years afterwards. Laud suffered the same fate.

17. Charles had, in 1629, violated the privileges of parliament, by causing nine members to be imprisoned for the part which they had taken in debate; but he was now betrayed into a still greater indiscretion, which contributed much towards kindling the flame of civil war. This was the impeachment of Lord Kimbolton, and five distinguished commoners, Pym, Hampden, Hollis, Hazlerig, and Strode; and his going himself to the house to seize them, leaving 200 armed men at the door. Having entered the house, he ordered the speaker, Lenthal, to point them out. "Sir," answered the speaker, falling on his knees, "I have neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak in this place, but as the house is pleased to direct me, whose servant I am; and I humbly ask pardon that I cannot give any other answer to what your majesty is pleased to demand of me."

18. The king withdrew without effecting his object, amidst low but distinct murmurs of "Privilege, privilege." This ill-advised and abortive attempt, which was condemned both by his friends and enemies, completed the degradation of the unfortunate monarch. He afterwards apologized to parliament for this conduct, but the day of reconciliation was past; he had lost the confidence of that body, and they were now prepared not only to confine his power within legal bounds,

but to strip him of his constitutional authority.

19. Both parties resolved to stake the issue of the contest on the sword; and the standard of civil war was now [1642] erected. The cause of the king was supported by three fourths of the nobility and superior gentry, by the bishops and advocates of episcopacy, and by the Catholics; that of the parliament by the yeomanry of the country, the merchants and tradesmen in the towns, by the Puritans, or opponents of episcopacy, comprising the Presbyterians, Independents, and other dissenters. The supporters of the king were styled Cavaliers; those of the parliament, Roundheads, an appellation given to them by their adversaries, because they cropped that hair short.

20. A religious spirit, unfortunately tinctured with fanaticism extravagance, and party feeling, was at this period

widely diffused throughout Great Britain, and it formed prominent characteristic of most of the leaders in parliament and also of those who took up arms in defence of their liberties. The charge of license and excess fell chiefly on the royalists, a great part of whom were men of pleasure, disposed to deride the sanctity and austere morality of their opponents. "All the sober men that I was acquainted with, who were against the parliament," says the celebrated Richard Baxter, "used to say, 'The king had the better cause, but the parliament had the better men.'"

21. England had been, comparatively, but little engaged in war since the accession of Henry VII., and it had but few men of military experience. The chief commanders in the royal army, besides the king, were the Earl of Lindsey, Prince Rupert, and Sir Jacob Astley; and in the parliamentary army, the Earl of Escex had the chief command at first, then Lord Fairfax, and afterwards Oliver Cromwell. In the early part of the contest, each side lost one of their greatest and best men; Hampden on the part of the parliament, and Lord Falkland on that of the king. In the battles of Edgehill and Newbury, the royalists had the advantage; but in those of Marston Moor and Naseby, they were entirely defeated.

22. After the war had raged nearly five years, the king fell into the hands of his enemies, who held him for some time a prisoner. At length, a minority of the house of commons, after having expelled their colleagues, being under the influence of the parliamentary army, instituted a high court of justice, composed of 133 members, for trying him on a charge of treason. The king, having been arraigned before this tribunal, received the sentence "that the court, being satisfied that Charles Stuart is guilty of the crimes of which he has been charged, do adjudge him, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation, to be put to death, by severing his head from his body."

23. Charles was now no longer the man he had been before the civil war. Affliction had chastened his mind; he had sought and found strength and relief in the consolations of religion; and his conduct during his trial exalted his character, even in the estimation of his enemies. He denied the authority of the court, but declared that he forgave those who were the cause of his death, and submitted to his fate with fortitude and composur. Having laid his head on the block, one of the masked executioners severed it from his body at a

blow; the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "Behold the head of a traitor;" while the sobs and lamentations of the spectators were mingled with the acclamations of the soldiery.

24. Such was the end of Charles I., an awful lesson to kings to watch the growth of public opinion, and to moderate their pretensions in conformity with the reasonable desires of their subjects. His execution, however, was contrary to the general feelings of the nation; but was the deed of comparatively a few men actuated by ambition or the madness of the times. Even of the commissioners appointed to sit in judgment on him, only about half could be induced to attend his trial. But the manner of his death has tended to exalt his posthumous reputation; for while it has moderated the reproaches of his adversaries, it has enhanced the encomiums of his advocates. who have styled him "the royal martyr," and in sympathy for his sufferings and resentment against the regicides, have been disposed to overlook his misdeeds which brought him to the scaffold.

25. It was the misfortune of Charles to inherit despotic principles from his ancestors, to be educated in a servile and profligate court, and to be surrounded by wretched counsellors. He was one of the last men to learn the important lesson, which princes in all ages have been slow to learn, that the influence of authority must ultimately bend to the influence of opinion. But his greatest defect, as well as the principal cause of his ruin, was the system of duplicity and insincerity upon which he acted in his public character. Such was his want of fidelity in his engagements, that the parliament could never confide in his promises.

26. But weak and reprehensible as he was as a king, he was by no means destitute of abilities. He was possessed of considerable learning and good talents as a speaker and writer; and his private character was exemplary. In his manners he is represented as cold, stiff, and formal, preserving a state and reserve, which were calculated to alienate those who approached him. With respect to religion, he was, says Bishop Burnet, "much inclined to a middle way

between Protestants and Papists."

27. The proceedings of Charles were at direct variance with every principle of civil and religious liberty; and had they been acquiesced in on the part of the people, England night now have been a despotism. Mr. Hume, the great apologist for the Stuart family, acknowledges the services of the Puritans; "by whom alone," according to him, "the precious spark of liberty had been kindled, and was preserved; and to whom the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution."

28. The intentions of those who first resisted the despotic and intolerant measures of the king and his court, were doubtless upright and patriotic; and their exertions to secure the rights of the nation, which had been wantonly violated, entitle them to the gratitude of posterity. Yet it must be acknowledged that those who opposed the intolerance of the king and of Laud, had themselves no consistent principles of religious liberty. In the progress of the contest, party spirit and fanaticism were called into powerful operation, and the leaders of the popular party, in many cases, acted on the principle that the end sanctifies the means, and appeared to think themselves absolved from all obligations of honor and honesty. Right and justice were outraged by those who professed to have drawn the sword in their defence. But such inconsistency is characteristic of revolutions.

29. The death of the king was soon followed by the abolition both of the monarchy and the house of lords, by the commous; and a republican government was established. It was publicly proclaimed, that the supreme authority of the nation resided in the representatives of the people; and that it should be accounted treason to give any person the title of king with-

out the authority of parliament.

30. After the execution of Laud, Episcopacy had been abolished, and Presbyterianism substituted in its stead. But the Presbyterian interest soon began to decline, and the Independents gained the ascendency; and the power which the parliament had wrested from the king, was at length, by the management of Cromwell, transferred to the army. Before the trial of Charles, measures had been taken to exclude the Presbyterians from parliament, and that part of the house which remained, distinguished by the ridiculous name of the Rump, was composed of Independents under the influence of Cromwell. In this manner the Presbyterians, who had overturned the church and the throne, fell victims to the military power which they had used as the instrument for accomplishing their designs.

31. The parliament of Scotland took no part in the trial of the king, and after his death they proclaimed *Charles II*. their sovereign, on condition of his signing the Covenant. Cromwell, at the head of 16,000 men, marched into Scotland

land, and defeated the royalist Covenanters in the battle of *Dunbar*. The royal army, retreating into Englaud, was pursued by Cromwell, and in the desperate battle of *Worcester*, almost the whole of the troops were killed or taken prisoners; and the victorious commander returned in triumph to London.

32. Young Charles escaped with difficulty. He assumed the disguise of a peasant, journeying in the least frequented roads, travelling only in the night, and passing the day in obscure cottages, where he was unknown, and where his food was generally a little coarse bread and milk. On one occasion, he sought safety by concealing himself, for a day, in the top of a large oak: in that precarious situation, he saw and heard his pursuers, as they passed by, talking of him, and expressing a wish that they might discover the place of his concealment. After two months of romantic adventure, he found an opportunity of escaping to France.

33. The republican parliament passed the famous Navigation Act, which, by prohibiting the importation of all foreign merchandise, except in English bottoms, or in those of the country producing the commodities, has proved the source of the naval superiority of Great Britain. This act was the cause of a war between England and Holland, which terminated in favor of the former, and in which the celebrated admiral Blake distinguished himself, and had for his antagonists the great

Dutch maritime chiefs, Van Tromp and De Ruyter.

34. The parliament, which had been in session twelve years, and known by the name of the Long Parliament, had lost the confidence of the people. It had been subservient to the views of Cromwell; but having at length become jealous of him, it formed the design of reducing the army, intending, by that means, to diminish his power. Cromwell, perceiving their object, and being secure of the attachment of the army, resolved on seizing the sovereign power. While sitting in a council of officers, on being informed of an unfavorable reply of parliament to a petition, which they had presented, he rose up on a sudden, with an appearance of fury, and turning to major-general Vernon, cried out, that he was compelled to do a thing which made the very hairs of his head stand on end.

35. Taking with him 300 soldiers to the door, he speedily entered the house with marks of violent indignation in his countenance; and after listening awhile to the debates, he started up, and began to load the parliament with reproaches. Then, stamping upon the floor, he gave a signal for his soldiers.

to enter; and addressing himself to the members, "For shame!" said he; "get you gone; give place to honester men. I tel you, you are no longer a parliament; the Lord has done with you!" Having turned out all the members, he ordered the doors to be locked.

36. In this manner Cromwell seized the reins of government; but he was willing to give his subjects a parliament. not, indeed, elected in the usual form, but modelled on principles entirely new. The ministers took the sense of the "Congregational churches" in the several counties, and returns were made containing the names of such persons as were deemed qualified for this high trust. Out of these, the council, in the presence of Cromwell, selected 163 representatives, to each of whom a writ of summons was sent, requiring his attendance; and on the appointed day, 120 of them presented themselves in the council chamber at Whitehall. body, composed of men who were deeply imbued with the fanaticism of the times, is known by the name of the Little Parliament, and is also often called Barebone's Parliament. from a leading member, a leather-dresser, whose name, given according to the taste of the age, was Praise-God Barebone.

37. The little parliament assembled on the 4th of July, 1663, and was dissolved in the following December. At the time of its dissolution, a new constitution was published, and Cromwell assumed the office of *Protector*, having now obtained the great object of his ambition, the station and authority, though not the title of king. He was assisted by a council of 21 members, and instead of the title of majesty, he received that of highness. He afterwards aspired to the title of king, which was at length tendered to him, yet under such circumstances of opposition and danger, that he thought proper to decline it.

38. The government which he had usurped, he administered with unrivalled energy and ability, and he was the most able and powerful potentate of his time in Europe. Abroad, his fleets and armies were victorious, and the island of Jamaica and the strong town of Dunkirk were taken from the Spanish: at home, he defeated and punished the conspiracies formed against him; granted religious toleration; caused justice to be ably and impartially administered by upright and learned judges; made himself to be respected and dreaded by the neighboring nations, and his friendship to be sought by every foreign power; and the splendor of his character and exploits rendered the short period of the protectorate one of

the most brilliant in English history; nor were the rights of England, under the reign of any other sovereign, more respected abroad. But, notwithstanding all his efforts, his enemies were numerous among both the royalists and republicans; and he lived in constant fear of assassination.

39. Cromwell was one of the greatest and most extraordinary men that England has produced; and till the rise of Bonaparte, his name was without a parallel in modern Europe. Men were accustomed to look with a feeling of awe upon the individual who, without the aid of birth, wealth, or connections, was able, by the force of his talents, to seize the government of three powerful kingdoms, and impose the yoke of servitude upon the necks of the very men who had fought in his company, to emancipate themselves from the arbitrary

sway of their hereditary sovereign.

40. He owed his elevation to his influence with the army, and the character of that body and that of their leader were, in a great measure, mutually formed by each other. The officers and soldiers made high professions of religion; religious exercises were of as frequent occurrence as those of military duty; the generals opened their proceedings in council by prayer; and among them Cromwell was preeminent in spiritual gifts, and was regarded by them as the favorite of heaven. While eagerly toiling up the ascent to greatness, he labored to make it appear that he was involuntarily borne for ward by a resistless force, by the wishes of the army, by the necessities of the state, and by the will of Providence; and in assuming authority, he yielded, with feigned reluctance, to the advice which he had himself suggested.

41. The name of Cromwell has been subjected to the almost universal charge of unbounded ambition and deep hypocrisy; and there is scarcely to be met with, in the annals of the world, another man alike conspicuous, and possessed of equal merit in his public and private character, who has met less favor from history. This is, indeed, a natural result, as his course, which was alike hostile to legitimate memarchy and republican liberty, rendered him equally odious to the two leading parties of the times, the advocates of the privileges of the people, and those of the prerogative of the king, and it may also be remarked, that by his high professions of religion, he made himself liable to the severest judgment. His desertion from the cause of liberty, and his baseness in subverting the freedom of his country, proved fatal, at once, to his happiness and his fame.

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- 42. Cromwell, in private life, in the several relations of a husband, a father, a neighbor, and a friend, was exemplary From his early days to the close of his career, religion, or religious enthusiasm, formed a distinguished trait in his character; and it frequently manifested itself in the senate and in the field, and also in his domestic retirement. Some writers have maintained that he was a dissembler in religion as well as in politics; and that, for interested purposes, he condescended to act the part of a character which he despised. "But this supposition," as Dr. Lingard justly observes, " is contradicted by the uniform tenor of his life."
- 43. Richard Cromwell, after the death of his father, was proclaimed Protector; but the contrast between the father and son was wonderful. Richard was neither a statesman nor a soldier, had no experience in public business, and possessed feeble talents, and little ambition; and after a few months, he resigned the office, and retired to private life. A state of anarchy succeeded, when General Monk (afterwards Duke of Albemarle), the military commander in Scotland, marched his army into England, and crushed the contending factions. A parliament was assembled, and on the 29th of May, 1660, Charles II., now 30 years of age, was restored to the throne of his father.
- 44. The nation, indiscreetly trusting to the general professions of Charles II., suffered him to assume the crown without imposing on him any conditions; and his reign, and that of James II., exhibit a disgusting repetition of struggles, similar to those which had occurred under the two first princes of the house of Stuart. The first impressions with regard to the new king were favorable; his manners were casy and familiar, but his habits were indolent; and experience soon proved his character to be profligate and worthless.

45. The change in the public sentiment, observable at this period, is not a little remarkable. The same people, who, but a few years before, were so jealous of liberty, and exclaimed so loudly against monarchical government, are now exhibited as soliciting, with eagerness, the shackles of arbitrary power. A number of the regicides were condemned and executed and the bodies of Cromwell, Bradshaw, and Ireton, were dug up from their graves, and hanged upon the gallows, to gratify the vandictive spirit of the king and the cavaliers. High-church or Tory principles, and the slavish doctrines of passive

obedience and non-resistance, now came in vogue. An act of uniformity in religion was passed, by which about 2,000 Preslyterian ministers were deprived of their livings; and another attempt was made to establish episcopacy in Scotland.

46. The prodigality of Charles kept him always in want. Dunkirk, which had been acquired by Cromwell, he sold to the French for £400,000, which he soon squandered upon his pleasures. He entered into hostilities with the Dutch, which were carried on, for some time, with spirit. While this war was raging, London was visited by a tremendous plague, which carried off about 90,000 inhabitants; and was followed, the next year, by a fire, by which 13,200 houses, comprising about two thirds of the metropolis, were reduced to ashes.

47. In consequence of the unsuccessful issue of the war (which was terminated by the peace of *Breda*), and of the sale of *Dunkirk*, the government became unpopular, and *Lord Clarendon*, on whom the odium was chiefly cast, was banished, and passed the remainder of his life in France. After the fall of Clarendon, the government became more unprincipled; and the five ministers, by whom it was conducted, have been stigmatized by the term of *Cabal*, so called from

the initial letters of their names.

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48. The Duke of York, (afterwards James II.) who had now the chief influence at court, was an avowed Catholic: Charles, so far as he had any sense of religion, was a concealed one, and had the baseness to receive from Louis XIV. of France a pension of £200,000 a year, for the purpose of establishing popery and despotic power in England. A gcaleial consternation for the safety of the Protestant religion and of public liberty prevailed; and the latter part of Charles's reign exhibits an uninterrupted series of attacks upon the tives, liberty, and property of his subjects; and a disgusting scene of party intrigues, and of plots and conspiracies; yet it was at this period that parliament passed the Habeas Corpus act, a most important security to the subject against personal oppression.

49. A pretended Popish Plot, disclosed by the infamous Titus Oates, occasioned an unjust execution of Lord Stafford, and some other Catholics. Another pretended conspiracy, in favor of reform, was called the Rye-House Plot; in which those eminent patriots, Lord Russell and Algernon Sydney, were accused of being concerned; and on testimony, supposed to be perjured, were condemned and beheaded.

- 50. The character of the court, as well as that of the king, was notorious for its profligacy; and it had a most unhappy influence upon the nation. A general dissoluteness of manners characterized the reign. All appearance of devotion, and all regularity of morals, were regarded as puritanical, and exploded as unfashionable. Charles II. was a man of wit and good humor, and possessed such talents as enabled him to shine among his gay and profligate companions; but he had no qualities, as a man or a king, that entitle him to the respect or gratitude of posterity.
- 51. James II., who succeeded his brother Charles, was inferior to him in talents, but much more devoted to business: like his predecessors of the Stuart family, he was arbitrary and impolitic; and his short and inglorious reign was wholly employed in attempts to establish the Catholic religion and despotic power. On assuming the government, he expressed his contempt for the authority of parliament, and his determination to exercise an unlimited despotism. He made Romish priests and Jesuits his chief counsellors; and though the Catholics, at this time, composed but a very small proportion of the people of England, yet he undertook the desperate attempt to set aside the Protestant religion, and, instead of it, to establish the popish faith.

52. The Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II., who, during the preceding reign, had defeated the Scottish Covenanters at Bothwell Bridge, having now excited a rebellion, with a view to seize the crown, was defeated, taken prisoner, and beheaded. The most inhuman rigor was exercised against those who favored him. The atrocious chief justice Jefreys, the most noted as a profligate judge in English history, exercised the most unrelenting cruelty. He gloried in his barbarity, and boasted that he had hanged more men than any other judge since the time of William the Conqueror; and his bloody career was styled by James, with unfeeling jocu-

'arity, "Jeffreys' campaign."

53. The efforts of James, in favor of popery, were, for a considerable time, attended with success. But having caused seven bishops to be committed to the Tower for refusing to read a Declaration to suspend the laws against popery, the passive spirit of the nation disappeared, and a general indignation was roused. William, Prince of Orange, who had married Mary, the eldest daughter of James, was invited over, and landed at Torbay, with an army, in order to assume the gover ment.

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54. The principal robility and officers immediately joined his standard, and James, being deserted by the people, and even by his own children, escaped to France, where he passed the remainder of his life. A Convention-Parliament declared the king's flight an abdication, and settled the crown upon William and Mary. This event is styled by British writers the glorious revolution of 1688.

55. The British constitution now became fixed and determined. The Protestant succession was secured; religious toleration granted; and Presbyterianism reëstablished in Scotland. A declaration was made, fixing the rights of the subject, and the prerogative of the king. Some of the most important articles are the following:—1. The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution: 2. He cannot levy money without the consent of parliament: 3. The subjects have a right to petition the crown: 4. A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace but with the consent of parliament: 5. Elections and parliamentary debates must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled.

56. Archbishop Sancroft, seven other bishops, and a considerable number of the clergy, who held the doctrines of passive obedience and the divine right of kings and bishops, looking upon James as still their lawful king, refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and were deprived of their stations. From this circumstance they were styled Non-

jurors, High-Churchmen, and Jacobites.

57. Ireland still adhered to James, and the parliament of that country declared William an usurper. Being assisted by Louis XIV. of France, James landed with some French forces in Ireland, where he was joined by a large army; but he was defeated by William at the river Boyne, and the country submitted to the new king. A large fleet, which Louis XIV. had prepared in favor of James, was destroyed by admiral Russell, off Cape la Hogue; and by the peace of Ryswick, which followed, the title of William to the crown was acknowledged.

58. William was a man of feeble constitution, but of distinguished talents, especially in war, to which his taste strongly inclined him; and he was esteemed one of the greatest commanders of his age. Though he was exemplary in his private character, yet he was rather fitted to command respect than affection, as he excelled more in the severer than in the milder virtues, being wholly devoted to business, and his manners

being cold, grave, and reserved; and he was less popular with his subjects than some other sovereigns of far less ment. Mary, his queen, and partner of the throne, who died seven years before him, was a woman distinguished for her virtues.

59. On the death of William, the crown devolved upon Anne, the second daughter of James II., who was married to Gcorge, prince of Denmark. She was not possessed of superior talents, but was respected for her virtues, and styled the "Good Queen Anne." Her reign was distinguished not only for military achievements, but also for eminent attainments in philosophy and literature; and is sometimes styled the Au

gustan Age of England.

60. In the first year of this reign, Great Britain, Germany, and Holland, in alliance with each other, declared war against France. The Duke of Marlborough, one of the greatest commanders of modern times, was appointed generalissimo of the allied army; and the imperial general was the celebrated Prince Eugene. In this great contest the Allies had greatly the advantage, effectually checked the ambition and encroachments of Louis XIV., and gained the splendid victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. The war was terminated by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

61. An important event of this reign was the constitutional union between England and Scotland, which put a final period to the contests which had harassed both countries, and includ-

ed them under one common title of Great Britain.

62. The party names of Whigs and Tories, which are still used to designate parties in England, first became common in the reign of Charles II. The Whigs were advocates for the rights of the people; the Tories favored those of the crown. The accession of William and Mary was advocated chiefly by the Whigs. During the reign of Anne, parties ran high; the nation was thrown into a ferment by the preaching of Dr. Sacheverell, who inculcated the Tory principle of passive obedience; and towards the close of the reign, the Tories supplanted the Whigs in the queen's favor, and came into power.

SECTION IX.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK :—George I.; George II.; George III.; George IV.—From A. D. 1714.

- 1. On the death of queen Anne, George I., elector of Hanover, succeeded to the crown, in the 55th year of his age. Before he ascended the throne, he had acquired the reputation of an able politician, an experienced general, and a benevolent prince. He was plain in his manners; was a man of great application to business; and his reign was pacific and prosperous. Some faults in his government were attributed to a venal ministry, and to his too great attachment to the subjects whom he had left.
- 2. The two parties which had long divided the kingdom, now, for a time, changed their titles, the Whigs being styled Hanoverians, and the Tories Jacobites. The former, being strenuous advocates for the accession of George, received in return from him favor and support, and were restored to power. This circumstance alienated and enraged the Tories to such a degree, that many of them took part with the Pretender, son of James II., who was proclaimed king in Scotland, and made an effort to obtain the crown; but the rebellion was suppressed, and the leaders executed.

3. A pacific reign, like that of George I., furnishes few events of importance in history. One, however, of disastrous consequences occurred, called the South Sea Scheme, a base imposture, by which it was proposed to diminish the burden of the national debt by lowering the interest. It gave a great shock to public credit, and involved thousands in ruin.

- 4. George II., who succeeded his father in the 44th year of his age, was an able general, of great personal courage, but was too fond of war, and delighted in military parade. His temper was violent, his talents respectable, though little cultivated by education; and his internal administration generally equitable and popular. His partialities in favor of his continental dominions are represented as still stronger than those of his father, and he has been censured for involving Great Britain in expensive wars on account of the interests of the electorate of Hanover.
- 5. The most prominent person in the administration, during a considerable portion of the reign of George I., and during

the former part of that of George II., was Sir Robert Walpola, a man whose policy was pacific, and who was distinguished for his talents, and not less so for the system of corruption and

venality which he practised while in office.

6. The military operations of this reign were extensive and numerous; and the British arms were, for the most part, triumphant. Charles VI., emperor of Germany, who died in 1740, was succeeded in his dominions by his daughter, the celebrated *Maria Theresa*, who was married to *Francis of Lorraine*. But *Charies*, the elector of Bavaria, asserted his claim to the throne, and, by the aid of Louis XV., was elected amperor.

7. This gave rise to a war, which involved the principal states of Europe, called the war of the Austrian succession; during which the Allies, under George II., defeated the French in the battle of Dettingen; and the French, under Marshal Saxe, routed the Allies at Fontenoy. Great Britain was the principal support of Maria Theresa, and by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, her claim to the throne was

confirmed.

8. While George II. was absent on the continent, at the head of the British army, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, assisted by Louis XV. of France, made an effort to recover the throne of his ancestors. Having landed in Scotland, he put himself at the head of an army, and defeated the royal forces in the battles of Preston-Pans and Falkirk; but was afterwards entirely defeated by the Duke of Cumberland, in the decisive battle of Culloden. This was the last battle that has been fought on the soil of Great Britain, and it terminated the last effort of the Stuart family to reascend the throne, which had been forfeited by the most egregious folly, and the most flagitious attempts.

9. In the latter part of this reign, the war between Great Britain and France was renewed, and in its progress the British took Louisburg, Fort du Quesne, Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Niagara, and finally, under the command of general Wolfe, they gained possession of the city of Quebec. These successes were followed by the surrender of all Canada on the part of the French. During these operations in America,

the British also made extensive conquests in India.

10. George II. was succeeded by his grandson, George III., who was the first king of the house of Brunswick that was born in England. He commenced his reign at an aus-

picious period, when the arms of Great Britain were triumphant, and the administration able and popular. The war with France was, not long afterwards, brought to a close and by the peace of *Paris*, Canada, and other territories in

North America, were confirmed to England.

11. William Pitt (afterwards Lord Chatham) was at the head of the administration during the last years of the preceding reign; and in the former part of this, he was the most prominent public man in the nation. At this period, oppressive measures were adopted by the British government with regard to the American Colonies. These Chatham opposed with his powerful eloquence: but they were persisted in; hostilities were commenced; a declaration of the independence of the United States was made, and their independence was finally acknowledged by Great Britain. [See United States.]

12. The other most important events in the history of England, during this reign, are the extension of the British dominions in India, the Irish rebellion, and the union between that country and Great Britain, and the various operations of the unexampled war which grew out of the French Revo-

lution. [See France.]

13. In 1789, the French revolution broke out, convulsing all Europe; and it was thought to threaten the overthrow of all established governments. The government of Great Britain, alarmed respecting its own safety, embarked zealously in the European war, with a view to check the dissemination

of democratic principles both at home and abroad.

14. The system of operations was devised and managed under the direction of William Pitt, the son of Lord Chatham, who was now at the head of the administration. This calamitous war continued to convulse the continent for 25 years, and during a part of the time Great Britain alone had all Europe arrayed against her. But after various fluctuations of failure and success, she came off victorious, yet not without an immense loss of the blood of her subjects, and a vast increase of her national debt. Some of the principal victories, which the British obtained during this war, were those of the Nile and of Trafalgar, by Nelson; and those of Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, and Waterloo, by Wellington.

15. The reign of George III., who died in 1820, was longer

15. The reign of George III., who died in 1820, was longer than that of any other English monarch; and it forms a distinguished period in the history of the kingdom, on account of its military events, and the progress of the nation in com-

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merce, wealth, and the arts. During the last ten years of his life, he was afflicted with insanity to such a degree, as entirely disqualified him for all business, and the *Prince of Wales* acted as *Regent*. His talents were not brilliant, nor were his views, as a statesman, enlarged; but his private character was amiable and exemplary, and he was much respected and beloved by his subjects.

16. George III. was succeeded, in 1820, by his son. George IV., who was a man of talents and accomplishments, but whose life, during both his youth and his manhood, had been marked by great prodigality and dissipation. prince, and not in power, he connected himself with the opposition, or Whigs; but both as regent and king, he adhered to the Tories, to the neglect of his former friends. Some of the most important events of this reign were the process, instituted in the House of Lords, against the queen, Caroline, for misconduct, the object of which was to deprive her of her rights and privileges as queen; the interposition in favor of the Greeks in their struggle for independence, together with the great naval victory over the Turkish fleet at Navarino, gained by the united fleets of England, France. and Russia; and also the passing of the bill for abolishing the disabilities of the Roman Catholics, a measure which had long divided and agitated the nation.

17. George IV. was succeeded, in 1830, by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, who bears the title of William IV. For many years, the question of a reform of the representation of the people, in the House of Commons, had been much agitated; and soon after the accession of William, the Duke of Wellington, the prime minister, expressed himself strongly against any reform; but the duke and his colleagues, not finding themselves supported by a majority of the House of Commons, resigned, and were succeeded by a whig ministry with Earl Grey at the head. A great measure of parliamentary reform was brought forward, under the direction of this ministry, and after a long and violent struggle, was carried through both houses of parliament in 1832. This measure, on account of the great changes which it has made, the strong sensation which it has produced throughout the country, and the consequences which are expected to result from it, is regarded as one of the most important events in the history of Great Britain.

[[]For a chronological view of the History of England, ses page 333.]

EUROPEAN STATES.

The history of the other States of Europe is less interesting and important, especially to American readers, than that of England and France. A chronological outline of the history of Germany and Spain is exhibited in the Historical Chart of the German Empire and that of Spain; and some account of the origin of all the following states, as well as the succession of sovereigns by whom they have been governed, is given in the Chart of the Sovereigns of Europe, which may be advantageously attended to in connection with the following notices

SCOTLAND.

1. The pretensions of Scotland to a regular succession of kings, from so remote a period as the time of Alexander the Great, are not supported by any credible evidence.—When Britain was abandoned by the Romans, A. D. 410, Scotland was divided among a number of hostile tribes, the principal of which were the Scots and Picts; but between the years 838 and 843, Kenneth II. subdued the latter, and became king of all Scotland.

2. Various contests took place between Scotland and the kings of England, the most memorable of which happened in the reign of Edward I., who conquered the country; but he found able antagonists in the heroic Sir William Wallace and Robert Bruce; the latter of whom defeated the English in the decisive battle of Bannockburn, and established himself on the

throne.

3. James VI., the infant son of the celebrated queen Mary, was proclaimed king, after her resignation in 1567, and succeeded to the crown of England in 1603; since which period the two countries have been governed by one and the same monarch; and this connection was rendered perpetual by the union of the two kingdoms, in 1706, during the reign of queen Anne.

GERMANY.

1. In 843, the Empire of the West was fivided into three monarchies, France, Germany, and Italy; and at the close of the reign of Charles the Fat, in 887, the imperial dignity was transferred entirely to Germany, which, in European history, is styled, by way of eminence, the Empire, and its subjects, the Imperialists. During more than half of the 10th century, it was governed, successively, by two able sovereigns, Henry the Fowler, and his son, Otho the Great. The latter reunited Italy to the empire, and was the greatest sovereign of the age.

2. The reign of *Henry IV*., sometimes called the *Great*, is memorable for his quarrel with, and humiliating submission to, pope *Gregory VII*. (*Hildebrand*). The election of *Conrad III*. gave rise to two celebrated factions, the *Guelphs* and *Ghibelines*, which harassed Germany and Italy during three centuries; and during this period the imperial authority declined, and the papal increased. The Ghibelines were at

tached to the emperor; the Guelphs to the pope.

3. The reign of Frederick I., surnamed Barbarossa, or Red-beard, was signalized by his contests with pope Alexander III., and by a crusade to the Holy Land, during which he was drowned in the river Cydnus in Cilicia.—After the reign of Conrad IV., succeeded a period of contention and confusion, called the Great Interregnum, which, after continuing 19 years, was terminated by the election of Rodolph, count

of Hapsburg, in Switzerland, to the imperial throne.

4. The principal events in the history of the latter emperors of the Franconian line, and of all the princes of the Swabian line, were produced by contests between the popes and the emperors. [See Historical Chart of the German Empire.] The grounds of these contests were, 1st, the right claimed by the emperors, of nominating to vacant bishoprics, and the form of investing the bishops with the temporal possessions of their sees; 2d, the claims of the popes to hold their possessions in Italy independent of the emperors; 3d, the claim of the popes to supreme dominion, both temporal and spiritual, in every part of the Christian world.

5. The reign of Louis IV. was much disturbed by contests with pope John XXII. The emperor was excommunicated by the pope, and his election declared void; and the pope was also deposed by the emperor. The princes of the empire

assembled at Frankfort, in 1338, and established the famous constitution, called the *Pragmatic Sanction*; by which it was determined that the pope had no right to approve or reject

the election of an emperor.

6. The reign of Sigismund is memorable for the meeting of the famous Council of Constance, in order to determine the contest respecting the papal authority. John Huss and Jerome of Prague were condemned and burnt by this council. Their adherents in Bohemia took up arms in defence of their religion, and under their famous leader Zisca, resisted Sigismund in a war of 16 years.

7. Maximilian I. acquired by marriage the sovereignty of the Netherlands, divided Germany into circles, instituted the Imperial Chamber and the Aulic Council, and by these means established a perpetual peace among the separate states, and laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

8. Charles V. [Charles I. of Spain] grandson of Maximilian, was the greatest and most powerful sovereign of his age. After a reign of nearly 40 years, during most of which he was engaged in war, chiefly with his great rival, Francis I. of France, and raised the house of Austria to its highest splendor, he voluntarily resigned the crown of Spain to his son Philip II., left the throne of Germany to his brother Ferdinand, and retired to the monastery of St. Just in Spain order to devote himself to the privacy of monastic life, and forget the cares of government and the temptations of the world. During his reign, the Reformation made great progress in Germany, which, however, Charles strenuously opposed.

9. The reigns of Ferdinand II. and Ferdinand III. were signalized by the Thirty years' war, which commenced in 1618, and was terminated by the peace of Westphalia, in 1648. This war grew chiefly out of the religious dissensions of the 16th century: on one side was the Protestant confederacy, styled the Evangelical Union; and on the other, the Catholic League. It issued in securing an equal establish-

ment of the Protestant and Catholic religions.

10. By the death of Charles VI., the male line of the house of Hapsburg became extinct; and the circumstance of there being two claimants to the throne, gave rise to a war, styled the war of the Austrian Succession, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, by which the claim of the celebrated Maria Theresa was acknowledged, and her consort, Francis of Lorraine, was invested with the imperial dignity.

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11. In 1806, Francis H., who had two years before assumed the title of hereditary emperor of Austria, solemnly resigned his title as emperor of Germany. Thus ended the German empire, after having lasted, from the commencement of the Western Empire under Charlemagne, 1006 years.

12. The imperial government was hereditary during the Carlovingian dynasty; afterwards always elective, but the mode of election was different at different periods. At first the emperor was chosen by the people at large; then by the nobility and principal officers of state; afterwards by the five following great officers, namely, the chancellor, the great marshal, the great chamberlain, the great butler, and the great master of the palace. At first they assumed the right of only proposing candidates to the general body of electors; but at length confined the whole right of election to themselves.—After much discontent, this was finally settled in the reign of Charles IV., by the celebrated constitution called the Golden Bull, which fixed the right of election in 4 spiritual and 3 temporal electors, namely, the Archbishops of Mentz. of Cologne, and of Treves; the King of Bohemia; the Count Palatine, the Duke of Saxony, and the Margrave of Brandenburg. . At subsequent periods, the Dukes of Bavaria and of Brunswick-Lunenburg were advanced to the electoral dignity.

SPAIN.

- 1. In the early part of the 5th century, Spain, after having long been in the possession of the Romans, was invaded by the Suevi, Vandals, and Alans, who were, ere long, subdued by the Visigoths, or Western Goths. In the early part of the 8th century, the country was invaded by the Moors or Saracens, who, under their commander Muza, gained, in 713, the great battle of Xeres, in which Roderick, the Gothic king, was slain.
- 2. In a few years, the Moors overran the most of the country, which, for some time, was governed by viceroys of the Saracen Caliphs; but in 755, Abderrahman, of the house of Ommissies, established an independent sovereignty, and assumed

the title of Caliph of Cordova; which city he made the seat of his empire, and also of arts and magnificence; and his posterity kept possession of the throne nearly three centuries. But the territories of the Moors were soon divided into a number of separate sovereignties, of which the most considerable, in the earlier part of their residence in Spain, was the caliphate of Cordova, and in the latter part, the caliphate of Granada.

3. When Spain was first invaded and conquered by the Moors, the Gothic, or, as they were now styled, the Christian forces, retired into the Asturias, and under their leader *Pelagio*, founded a kingdom in 718; and they gradually recovered other parts of the country. For several centuries, the history of Spain presents a continued struggle between the Christians and Moors; and the latter part of the 11th century was illustrated by the exploits of the famous Spanish hero Don Rod-

rigo Diaz, Count of Bivar, surnamed the Cid.

4. Several distinct Christian kingdoms, which subsisted for a long period, were established, the most considerable of which were Castile and Leon, Arragon, and Navarre. In 1479, Ferdinand H., who had been previously married to Isabella, queen of Castile and Leon, succeeded to the throne of Arragon, and their kingdoms now became united. Granada, the only possession now held by the Moors in Spain, was soon after taken; Navarre was subsequently conquered, and all Spain became, for the first time, united into one monarchy.

5. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella forms an eventful period in the history of Spain, on account of military exploits, the expulsion of the Moors, the union of the country into one kingdom, and the discovery of America, which brought an immense accession of wealth to the Spanish crown, and laid the foundation for vast colonial possessions in this continent.

6. During the long reigns of Charles I [Charles V. of Germany] and Philip H., Spain acted a conspicuous part in the affairs of the world; and on account of her extensive possessions in both continents, was regarded as the most formidable power in Europe; but since that period, her comparative consequence has declined, and she has long held only a secondary rank among the European states. The most flourishing period of Spanish literature was during the time when the kingdom was governed by princes of the house of Austria, in the 16th and 17th centuries.

PORTUGAL.

1. This kingdom forms the greatest part of what was anciently called Lusitania; and its early history is involved with that of Spain; it having been successively in subjection

to the Romans, Sucvi, Visigoths, and Moors.

2. In the contests between the Moors and Christians, Henry, Duke of Burgundy, having rendered important services to Alphonso, or Alonzo, king of Castile, was rewarded by him, in 1094, with that part of Portugal which was not in possession of the Moors, to be held with the title of count or earl. He was succeeded by his son Alphonso, who gained a signal victory over the Moors, at Orique, threw off the Castilian yoke, and assumed the title of king, in 1139.

3. The reign of John I. is famous for his victories over the Castilians, and his expeditions against the Moors; but still more so for the impulse given by prince Henry the Mariner. to navigation and the progress of discovery, a department of enterprise and skill in which the Portuguese were, for a long

time, unrivalled by any other nation.

4. The reigns of John II. and Emanuel were distinguished for important discoveries. During the reign of the former, Bartholomew Diaz reached the Cape of Good Hope, in 1486; and during that of the latter, Vasco de Gama, in 1497, doubled the same cape, and sailed to India. From that period, the trade between that country and Europe was diverted from its former channel through the Red Sea and Egypt; and for many years the navigation of the Cape was considered as the exclusive property of the Portuguese, on the ground of first discovery; nor was their monopoly effectually invaded till the rise of the Dutch.

5. The space intervening between the commencement of the reign of John I. and the conquest of Portugal by Philip II. of Spain, forms the golden period of the monarchy—a period which was illustrated by the exploits, both in discovery and conquest, of a succession of distinguished heroes, and also by the productions of several men of genius and learning, among whom the poet Camoens, the author of the Lusiad, who flourished during the latter part of this period, holds the first rank.

6. In 1580, the male line of the royal family of Portugal having become extinct, and the kingdom having suffered a series of misfortunes, Philip II. of Spain seized upon it, and

united it to his crown; but in 1640, the Spaniards were expelled, and John, Duke of Braganza, the presumptive heir, was raised to the throne, in whose family it still remains.

7. Two years after the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Cabral, a Portuguese, discovered Brazil, which was colonized about the middle of the 16th century, and till lately, formed an important part of the territories of the kings of

Portugal.

8. In 1807, Portugal being invaded by the French, the royal family removed the seat of government to Brazil, where they remained till 1820, when they returned to Lisbon, with the exception of Pcdro or Pcter, the king's eldest son, who was left regent. In 1823, Brazil was declared an independent empire, under Pcdro, who took the title of emperor: and in 1825, its independence was acknowledged by Portugal. In 1826, the throne of Portugal became vacant by the death of John VI. Pedro, the emperor of Brazil, resigned his claims to the crown in favor of his daughter Maria da Gloria, who was proclaimed queen, and Isabella, a sister of Pedro, was appointed regent; but Miguel, a younger brother of Pedro, has usurped the throne.

THE NETHERLANDS.

1. This country, during the Middle Ages, comprised various small states, governed by counts or earls. In the 15th century, most of the country, which had then become the seat of extensive manufactures and the centre of European commerce, was possessed by the Duke of Burgundy; but in the latter part of the century, these provinces were transferred, by the marriage of Maximilian, to the house of Austria.

2. In 1555, they were resigned by Charles V. to his son Philip II., king of Spain. In 1579, the Seven United Provinces of Holland revolted from the tyranny of Philip, and established their independence: part of the others continued in the possession of Spain till the peace of Utrecht, in 1703, when they were again ceded to the house of Austria, which held them till 1794, when they were conquered by the French.

3. Soon after the Dutch Provinces had emancipated themselves from Spain, and established their independence and a free government, they rose, by industry and enterprise, to a

high degree of prosperity, and became one of the most formidable maritime powers in the world. They stripped the Spaniards of some of their most valuable establishments in the East Indies and America, and extended their commerce in all directions.

4. The Seventeen Provinces were, for a few years, united to the French empire; but by the congress of Vienna, they were erected into a kingdom under the government of the Prince of Orange, whose title is king of the Netherlands and

grand duke of Luxemburg.

POLAND.

1. Miceslaus, prince of Poland, introduced Christianity into the country in the 10th century. The most flourishing period of the monarchy was during the 15th and 16th centuries, when Poland ranked among the most formidable states of Europe.

2. Casimir III., surnamed the Great, in the 14th century, founded the university of Cracow, patronized learning, encouraged industry and commerce, and furnished the nation with a code of written laws. In the latter part of the 14th century, Jagellon [Ludislaus V.], Duke of Lithuania, by his marriage with Hedwiga, queen of Poland, united the two countries.

3. Under the reign of Sigismund I., the kingdom reached its highest pitch of dominion and splendor. It afterwards declined, but its falling glory was, for a time, upheld by John

Schieski, the last great man among its sovereigns.

4. Poland was conquered by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and subjected by them to three different partitions; the first in 1772; the second in 1793; the third in 1795, when Stanislaus was deprived of regal dignity, and his ill-fated country, by an act of the vilest tyranuy, was blotted out from the list of kingdoms.

SWEDEN.

1 This country, together with Norway, formed the Scandinavia of the ancients, the original seat of the Goths and Vandals—In the latter part of the 14th century, Sweden be-

came subject to Margaret of Denmark, styled the Semiramis of the North, who joined the three kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway in one, by the Union of Calmar, in 1397. But her successor being destitute of her great abilities, this union fell to nothing, and Sweden was, for a long time, disturbed by insurrections and war.

2. In the early part of the 16th century, the Swedes were delivered from the oppression of Christian II., king of Denmark, styled the Nerv of the North, by Gustavus Vasa, a descendant from the ancient kings, and an enlightened prince, who was raised to the throne, and who promoted the welfare of his subjects, and introduced the Protestant religion.

3. The reign of Gustavus Adolphus, surnamed the Great, forms a distinguished era in the history of Sweden. He was eminent as a statesman and a sovereign, and is ranked among the greatest commanders of modern times. He took part with the Protestants in the Thirty years' war, and was their most distinguished general. After having gained a series of advantages, he was slain in the battle of Lutzen.

4. Charles XII., who possessed an enthusiastic passion for glory, and a romantic spirit to a degree of infatuation, is by some styled the Alexander, and by others the Madman, of the North. After a brilliant career of victory in his vars with the Danes, Poles, and Russians, he was, at last, entirely defeated by Peter the Great, in the battle of Poltava; since which, the Swedish territories have been exposed to a progressive reduction by the rising power of Russia.

5. Gustavus IV., having lost Finland, which was conquered, in 1808, by Russia, and, by his mad schemes, brought his kingdom to the brink of ruin, was, in 1809, deposed, and Bernadotte, one of Bonaparte's generals, was elected crown prince. On the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, Bernadotte succeeded to the throne, by the title of Charles XIV. The loss of Finland has since been repaired by the acquisition of Norway.

DENMARK.

1. In 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian I., of the house of Holstein or Oldenburg. The monarchy was originally elective, and great power was possessed by the nobility, until the year 1660, when, partly in consequence of

the unfavorable issue of a war with Sweden, and partly on account of the oppression of the aristocracy, it was changed

to a hereditary absolute government.

2. In the beginning of the 18th century, Denmark, during the reign of Frederick IV., waged an unsuccessful war against Charles XII. of Sweden, which was ended in 1720; from which time the country enjoyed almost uninterrupted peace till 1801.

- 3. During the pacific reigns of Christian VI. and Frederick V., the kingdom was in a prosperous condition. The latter was assisted by Count Bernstoff, a distinguished statesman, whose nephew, of the same name, acted an important and conspicuous part in government, during the reign of Christian VII.
- 4. Christian VII., a weak and dissolute prince, married Caroline Matilda, sister of George III. of England, who was accused of having had improper connection with Count Strueusee, the minister and favorite of the king. Struensee was condemned and executed, and Matilda, after being imprisoned, was permitted to pass the remainder of her life at Zell in Hanover.
- 5. In 1801, Copenhagen was attacked by a British fleet under Lord Nelson; and in 1807, when the country was at peace, the city was bombarded by a British armament under Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, under pretence that information had been received that Denmark intended to throw herself into the scale of France. The whole Danish fleet, consisting of 18 ships of the line, and 15 frigates, were surrendered to the British. This unjust transaction has been generally and loudly exclaimed against.

PRUSSIA.

1. The foundation of Prussian greatness was laid by Frederick William, surnamed the Great Elector, who succeeded to the government in 1640, and had a long and prosperous reign. His successor, Frederick, a weak and vain prince, was raised to the rank, and received the title of king, in 1701.

2. Frederick II., surnamed the Great, after suffering much hard treatment from his father, ascended the throne in 1740; and being ambitious of conquest and military glory, he immediately invaded Silesia, with a fine army, which had been left

to him by the late king, and was so successful as to obtain the

cession of that valuable province.

3. In 1756, Frederick published a declaration of war against Maria Theresa, empress of Germany, who was aided by the French and Russians. The contest, which was carried on with great spirit on both sides, and was signalized by many hard-fought and bloody battles, was terminated by the peace of Hubertsberg, in 1763: "and thus, after a seven years' sanguinary struggle, to which his unprincipled projects had given rise, and in which, independent of other sufferers, more than thalf a million of combatants had fallen in the field, every thing was replaced on its ancient footing, and the only gainful result was simply this, that Frederick of Prussia had been furnished with an opportunity of proving himself a consummate commander, animated by an unconquerable spirit of military heroism, and endued with one of the coolest heads and hardest hearts in Christendom."

4. Frederick afterwards applied himself to the internal improvement of his kingdom; rebuilt towns, encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. In the first partition of Poland, he was the prime mover and the principal agent. He is esteemed one of the greatest commanders of modern times, and was, perhaps, the most indefatigable sovereign that ever existed. He was fond of literature, and possessed extensive literary acquirements, and considerable merit as an author; but he was despotic in his disposition, and had little sense of justice or humanity.

5. In the late European war, Frederick William III., the present king of Prussia, suffered a great defeat by the French under Bonaparte, at Jena; and at the peace of Tilsit, he lost nearly one half of his territories. In 1813, he lost altitude against France, and his army, under Blucher, contributed a convertil and in the overthrow of Bonaparte, and he

altion against France, and his army, under Blucher, contributed a powerful aid in the overthrow of Bonaparte; and by the treaty of Vienna, he gained a large accession of territory.

RUSSIA.

1. The importance of Russia, which is now one of the most powerful sovereignties of Europe, is of recent origin. The foundation of its greatness was laid by Peter the Gr at, who reigned from 1696 to 1725, and who was one of the most extraordinary princes that ever appeared. He joined in a co-

alition against Charles XII. of Sweden, and, after suffering some defeats, gained the great battle of Poltava, and enlarged

and strengthened his empire.

2. Catharine II., who obtained the sceptre, in 1762, by the dethronement and murder of her husband, Peter III., had a long and splendid reign. She displayed extraordinary talents for government; carried on the system of improvement which had been begun by Peter the Great; employed able ministers and generals, among the most celebrated of whom were Sawarrow and Potemkin; and enlarged her empire by the addition of a part of Poland, the Crimea, and other territories:—but her public character was stained by unprincipled ambition, profound dissimulation, and disregard to justice; and her private character was extremely licentious.

3. Catharine was succeeded, in 1796, by her son Paul, who, after a short and distracted reign, was assistanted in 1801, and succeeded by his son Alexander, a popular and prosperous sovereign, during whose reign the power and dominions of Russia were extended, and objects of public improvement promoted. In 1812, Bonaparte made his disastrous invasion of Russia, and here met with the first effectual

check to his career of victory and conquest.

4. In 1825, Alexander was succeeded by his brother Nicholas, the present emperor, whose reign has been distinguished for the wars carried on against the Turks and Persians. The war against Turkey was declared in April, 1828, and the Russian army soon after invaded the Turkish dominions, took Brailow, Varna, and various other important posts. During the campaign of 1829, the Russians, commanded by Count Diebitsch, after having taken Silistria and other places, crossed the Balkan mountains, took the city of Adrianople, and compelled the Turks to accede to their conditions of peace; and in September, 1829, a treaty was signed at Adrianople.

ROME.

1. The temporal power of the pope [Stephen II.,] commenced in 755, and it attained its zenith in the 11th century, during the pontificate of Gregory VII. [Hildebrand], who assumed authority over kings and potentates.

2. The first half of the 16th century is a memorable era in the history of the papacy. Pope Julius 11., the projector of

the League of Cambray, was distinguished as a statesman and a warrior; and his successor, Leo X., the son of the famous I orenzo de Medici, was a liberal patron of learning. During his pontificate, the Reformation was begun by Lucher. Since that event, the power of the Roman pontiff has been greatly diminished.

3. In 1809, Bonaparte united the Ecclesiastical States to the French empire, and the temporal power of the pope was for a while suspended; but by the congress of Vienna, he was reinstated in nearly all his former possessions.

TURKEY.

1. The Turks are a Tartar nation, originally from Asia. The first notice of them in history, is about the year 800, when, issuing from an obscure retreat, they took possession of a part of Armenia, called from them Turcomania. Their dominions, divided for some time into petty states, were united under Othman, Ottoman, or Osman, who assumed the title of Sultan, and established his empire at Prusa in Bithynia, in 1298.

2. In 1360, the most of Thrace was conquered by them under Amurath I., who made Adrianople the seat of his government; his successor, Bajazet, conquered most of the Eastern or Greek empire; and in 1453, Mahomet II. took Constantinople, which has ever since continued to be the seat of

the Ottoman or Turkish empire.

3. The Turks afterwards widely extended their empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa, and gained possession of the greater part of the countries most celebrated in ancient history. During the reign of Selim I., Syria and Egypt were conquered. The reign of Solyman the Magnificent was more illustrious than that of any other of the sultans. He took the island of Rhodes from the knights of St. John, besieged Vienna, made the king of Hungary his tributary, reduced Bagdad, conquered the whole of Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Tunis; and established excellent laws in his dominions.

4. Since the reign of Solyman, the Turks have been engaged in various sanguinary wars, particularly with the Austrians, Russians, and also with the Persians under Kouli-Khan

5. The Turkish power has lately been much weakened, in consequence of the revolt of the Greeks, and also of the ca-

lamitous war with Russia, which has been recently terminated

by the peace of Adrianople.

6. The Greeks commenced an open revolt in 1821. After a war had been, for a considerable time, carried on, with savage ferocity, between them and the Turks, several European nations interposed in their favor; and in 1827, the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia, almost annihilated the Turkish naval force in the battle of Navarino. In 1828, the Morea and a part of the Greek islands, being liberated from Turkish thraudom, were formed into an independent government under Count Capo d'Istria as president of Greece.

AMERICA.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT:—Columbus, Am ricus, Cabot, &c.: Conquest of Mexico and Peru;—Cortex, Pizarro, &c.—From A. D. 1492 to 1600.

1. The discovery of America was the greatest achievement of the kind ever performed by man; and, considered in connection with its consequences, it is the greatest event of modern times. It served to wake up the unprecedented spirit of enterprise: it opened new sources of wealth, and exerted a powerful influence on commerce, by greatly increasing many important articles of trade, and also by bringing into general use many others before unknown: by leading to the discovery of the rich mines of this continent, it has caused the quantity of the precious metals in circula ion throughout the world, to be exceedingly augmented: it also gave a new impulse to colonization, and prepared the way for the advantages of civilized life, and the blessings of Christianity, to be extended over vast regions, which before were the miserable abodes of barbarism and pagan idolatry.

2. The man to whose genius and enterprise the world is indebted for this discovery, was Christopher Columbus, of Genoa. He was the son of a wool-comber; was engaged in a sea-faring life from the age of 14; was well versed in the sciences of geometry, astronomy, and geography; had more correct ideas of the figure of the earth, than were common in his time; was singularly qualified for executing an arduous expedition; being well skilled in naval science; fertile in expedients; patient and persevering; grave and dignified in his deportment; master of himself, and skilful in the govern-

ment of other men.

3. He conceived that, in order to complete the balance of the terraqueous globe, another continent necessarily existed, which might be reached by sailing to the west from Europe; but he erroneously connected it with India. Being persuaded of the truth of his theory, his adventurous spirit made him eager to verify it by experiment.

4. The passage round the Cape of Good Hope not being then known, the merchandisc of India was, in order to be conveyed to Europe, brought up the Red sea, and transported across the land to Alexandria. To find a passage to China 20.

and the East Indies by sea, had long been an object of in vestigation; and it was in quest of a shorter and easier route by the west, that Columbus undertook his voyage of discovery. The riches of the East were the bribe and inducement which he held out to the sovereign or the state, that should

enable him to execute his design.

5. He first applied for assistance to his countrymen, the Genoese, then to the Portuguese, then to Ferdinand of Spain, and then, by means of his brother Bartholomew, to Henry VII. of England; but all without success; and he had the mortification to be considered a visionary projector. At length, after 7 years of persevering and anxious solicitation and contemptuous neglect, in Spain, and 18 years after he had first conceived the enterprise, he obtained a gleam of royal favor from queen Isabella. By her means he was provided with three small vessels, victualled for 12 months, and having on board 90 men. The expense of huilding and supplying the whole, was only about £4,000. He was appointed admiral of all the seas which he should explore, and governor of all the islands and countries which he should discover and subdue.

6. With the small and ill-appointed fleet which had been furnished, he sailed from *Palos*, in Spain, on the 3d of August, 1492. He steered directly for the Canary islands, where having refitted, he proceeded on his voyage, on the 6th of September, passing into seas, which no vessel had been known to have ever explored, and without a chart to

direct his course.

7. He had soon occasion to make use of all his talents and address. After having sailed about 200 leagues from the Canaries, the variation of the magnetic needle from its direction to the polar star, a phenomenon which had never before been observed, excited alarm in his own breast, and filled the sailors with terror and dismay to such a degree, that they were ready to rise in open mutiny. But, with great presence of mind, he made a solution of the phenomenon, which served to silence the murmurs of his crew, though it was unsatisfactory to himself. Having pursued their course for 30 days longer, without discovering land, the murmurs of the crew again broke out, and with increased violence. Columinus made use of encouragement and exhortation; but, according to Ovicdo, was compelled to yield so far to their importunity, as to propose, that if, after proceeding three days more, no land were discovered, he would instantly return.

8. Strong indications of land had already begun to appear; and in the night of the 11th of October, Columbus, who was standing on the forecastle, discovered a light ahead. The morning displayed the joyful sight of land! A hymn of thanksgiving to Almighty God was sung by the whole crew, who immediately united in the most ardent expressions of admiration for their commander, with acknowledgments of their rashness and disobedience.

9. The island first discovered was St. Salvador, or Cat Island, one of the Bahanas. He afterwards discovered Cuba and Hayti, or St. Domingo, which he named Hispaniola, and on which he landed, and left some of his men to form a colony. In conformity with the theory which he had adopted, he connected these islands with India, believing them at no great distance from that unexplored region; and as he had reached them by a western passage, he denominated them the West Indies. And in accordance with this theory, the aborigines of America, from the time of the first discovery.

have been designated by the appellation of Indians.

10. Having obtained a quantity of gold and some of the natives, he set sail on his return to Spain. During the voyage a violent tempest arose, which lasted fifteen days, and exposed the fleet to extreme danger; and, in order to afford a small chance that the world might not lose the benefit of his discovery, and that his own name might not go down to posterity as a visionary projector, he had the presence of mind to write a short account of his voyage, which he wrapped in an oiled cloth, and enclosed in a cake of wax; and putting this into an empty cask, he committed it to the sea, in lopes that u might fall into the hands of some fortunate navigator, or be cast ashore. But the storm happily abated, and Columbus entered the port from which he had sailed about seven months before, amidst the acclamations and wonder of the multitude. He proceeded immediately to the court, where he was received with respect and admiration.

11. Columbus afterwards made a second and a third voyage, in the latter of which he discovered, in 1498, the Continent of South America: but his successes and honors did not fail to excite envy and intrigues against him in the court of Spain. In consequence of false accusations, he was deprived of the government of Hispaniola, and sent home in chains. The captain of the vessel which carried him, impressed with the highest veneration for his captive, and feeling the deepest regret for the indignity which he suffered, offered to releaso

him from his fetters. "No," said Columbus, in a burst of generous indignation, "I wear these irons in consequence of an order from their majesties, the rulers of Spain. They shall find me as obedient to this, as to their other injunctions. By their command I have been confined; and their command alone shall set me at liberty."

12. But he never forgot the unjust and shameful treatment which he had received. Through the whole of his after life, he carried his fetters with him, as a memorial of the ingratitude which he had experienced. He hung them up in his chamber, and gave orders that they should be buried with

him in his grave.

13. Upon the arrival of Columbus in Spain, a prisoner and in fetters, the indignation of all men was highly excited; and Ferdinand, cold, distant, and haughty as he was, felt for awhile the emotions of shame. But after detaining him for a long time, in a fatiguing and vexatious attendance, he appointed another person governor of Hispaniola in his stead. Such was the reward which the great discoverer of this western world received, for having devised and carried on to a successful issue, one of the noblest and most daring enterprises that ever entered into the mind of man; and such is the account which impartial history is constrained to give of the

justice and gratitude of kings!

14. Columbus, intent on finding a passage to India by the west, afterwards made a fourth voyage, examined the coast of Darien, and was shipwrecked on the coast of the island of Jamaica. He here obtained, for a time, an astonishing command over the Indians, by predicting an eclipse of the moon. After having endured a great variety of suffering and calamity, from the mutiny and treachery of his men, from conflicts with the natives, from scarcity of provisions, and from sickness, in this his last and most disastrous expedition, he returned to Spain; and, worn out with fatigue, disappointment, and sorrow, he died at Valladolid, in 1506, at about the age of 70 years. His funeral, by the order of Philip, who had recently ascended the throne, was extremely magnificent, and the following inscription was engraved on his tomb:—"To Castile and Leon, Columbus has given a new world."

15. But this great man was unjustly deprived of the honor of giving his name to this continent by Americus Vesputius, a native of Florence, who accompanied Ojeda in a voyage, in 1499, and discovered a part of the coast of South America, the rext year after the continent had been discovered by Co-

inmbus. He wrote an account of his voyage claiming the bopor of being the first discoverer of the main land; and from him the continent has been named America. But this act of mjustice, how much soever it is to be regretted, has done no real injury to the reputation of the one, nor benefit to that of the other; our feelings rather incline us to enhance the merit of Columbus, as one whose noble achievement has been ill requited, and to detract from that of Americus, as one who

would usurp the honors of another.

16. In 1497, Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese, first doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sailed to India. By this, he effected what was a leading object with Columbus in his enterprise, and what had been, during the preceding century, an object of investigation, namely, the discovery of a more expeditions and convenient passage to the East Indies, than through Egypt. In 1519, Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, passed the straits which bear his name, and launched into the vast ocean, which he called Pacific; but ha lost his life at one of the Philippine islands; yet his officers proceeded on the voyage, and accomplished, for the first time, the circumpanication of the globe.

17. John Cabot, a Venetian by birth, but an inhabitant of Bristol, in England, received a commission from Henry VII., and sailed in the beginning of May, 1497, on a voyage of discovery, accompanied by his son, Sebastian Cabot; and one or both of them discovered the Continent of North America, the year before the main land of South America had been discovered by Columbus, and two years before it had been seen

by Americus.

18. The land first seen was called *Prima Vista*, which is supposed to have been a part of Newfoundland. They proceeded further to the north, in search of a passage to India; but finding no appearance of one, they tacked about, and sailed as far as Florida. They erected crosses along the coast, and took a formal possession of the country in behalf of the crown of England. This was the foundation of the English claim to North America, though no settler sents were formed till many years after.

19. Several years passed away, from the time of the first discovery of America by Columbus, before any considerable settlement was formed by the Spaniards, on the continent. In 1519, Fernando Cortez, with a fleet of 11 small vessels, having on board 617 men, sailed from Cuba for the invasion of Mexica, and landed at Vera Cruz. As fire-arms were not

yet in general use, only 13 of the men had muskets; the rest being armed with cross-bows, swords, and spears. Cortez had also 10 small field-pieces, and 16 horses—the first of

these animals ever seen in that country.

20. Cortez proceeded rapidly from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico, where he was cordially received by Montezuma, the hospitable and unsuspecting monarch. The perfidious Spaniard, however, caused him to be seized in his palace. The Mexicans, roused by this treachery, flew to arms, and after a sanguinary struggle, the Spaniards were expelled from the capital. Montezuma was killed in the conflict, and was succeeded by his nephew Guatimozin.

21. Cortez, undismayed by this reverse, having obtained the assistance of a nation of Indians who were tributary to the sovereign of Mexico, but desirous to throw off the yoke; and having procured a reinforcement of Spaniards, besieged and took the city, together with Guatimozin, and became master of the country in 1521. Thus was the great empire of Mexico overthrown by a handful of daring and unprincipled

adventurers.

22. In 1518, the Spaniards formed a settlement at *Panama*, on the west side of the gulf of Darien. From this place several attempts were made to explore the regions of South America; and hence *Pizarro* sailed on an expedition, in 1525, and discovered the rich and flourishing kingdom of *Peru*. He afterwards obtained from Charles V., the king of Spain, a commission, as governor of the country, and a military force to subdue it; and for this purpose, in 1531, he sailed from Panama, with three small vessels, and 180 men.

23. With this little band he invaded the country, marched to the residence of the *inca* or king *Atabalipa*, and having invited him to a friendly interview, and attempted to persuade him to embrace the Christian religion, he seized him as a prisoner; and by his order, his men fell upon the defenceless and unresisting attendants of the monarch, and slew upwards

of 4,000 of them.

24. The Peruvian monarch, in order to procure his release, caused the room in which he was confined, which was 22 feet by 17, to be filled for Pizarro, with vessels of gold and silver, as high as he could reach. The treasure, which was collected from various parts of the empire, amounted, in value, to upwards of £1,500,000, which was divided among the conquerors. But the perfidious Spaniard still held the inca prisoner; and Almagre is no joined Pizarro with a reinforcement, they

brought the monarch to trial; and, on a charge of being a usurper and an idolater, condemned and executed him!

25. The Spanish chiefs not long after quarrelled with each other, and a civil war ensued. Almagro was taken prisoner, condemned, and executed; and soon after. Pizarro was assassinated. The Indians took advantage of these contentions; and under their new inca, Huanca Capac, rose against the Spaniards; but they were at last subdued, and Peru became a province of Spain.

26. At the time of the invasion of the Spaniards, the Peruvians and Mexicans had made considerable progress towards civilization; much more than the rest of the Indians. They understood the arts of architecture, sculpture, mining, and working the precious metals; cultivated their land, were clothed, and had a regular system of government, and a code of civil and religious laws. The Peruvians had the superiority in architecture, and possessed some magnificent palaces and temples. They worshipped the sun as the supreme deity, and their religion had few of those sanguinary traits, which were characteristic of that of the Mexicans.

27. In 1524, Francis I. of France, willing to share a part of the new world with his neighbors, commissioned Verrazano on a voyage of discovery. This navigator explored a great part of the coast of North America. Ten years afterwards, James Cartier set out on a similar expedition, sailed up the gulf of St. Lawrence, took possession of the country in behalf of the king, and styled it New France; but the name

was afterwards changed to Canada.

28. In 1584, the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, under a commission from queen Elizabeth, to discover, occupy, and govern "remote, heathen, and barbarous countries," not previously possessed by any Christian prince or people, arrived in America, entered Pamlico sound, and proceeded to Roanoke island, near the mouth of Albemarle sound, and took possession of the country. On his return to England, he gave such a splendid description of the beauty and fertility of the region, that Elizabeth, delighted with occupying so fine a territory, gave it the name of Virginia, as a memorial that this happy discovery was made during the reign of a virgin queen.

29. Several attempts were made to form settlements in Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, and Sir Richard Grenville, but they all proved unsuccessful; and part

of the colonists were carried back to England, part of them perished by disease, and part were destroyed by the Indians.

30. It was the practice of Europeans to take possession of the parts of America which they visited, by the pretended right of discovery. The original inhabitants were treated as if they had no rights, and were no more owners of the soil than the beasts of the forest. This example was set by Columbus himself. He landed upon St. Salvador, the first island discovered, in a gorgeous dress, with a drawn sword in his hand, and the royal standard displayed, and took possession of the island for the crown of Castile and Leon; and in conformity to this practice, it was inscribed on his tomb, that to this crown he "had given a new world."

31. The pope, in accordance with principles that were acted upon in an age of ignorance and superstition, granted to the sovereigns of Spain the countries discovered by their subjects in the new world. The propagation of Christianity was held out as the chief reason for taking possession of America; and the promotion of a religion which breathes "peace on earth and good will towards men," was made the pretext for every species of injustice, cruelty, bloodshed, and slavery, which the defenceless inhabitants of America were destined to experience from Cortez, Pizarro, and other unprincipled invaders.

32. The Spaniards who first came to America, were stinulated by the desire and expectation of finding the precious metals, gold and silver. So powerful was this passion for gold, that the first adventurers encountered every possible hardship and danger in search of it, and sacrificed millions of the wretched natives, whom they compelled to work in the mines. The unfortunate Indians were subjected to the meta, a kind of annual conscription, by which they were forced to perform, in the mines, for their avaricious task-masters, a service so hard and unhealthy, that it proved fatal to as many as about one third of every conscription.

33. The discovery and settlement of America also gave rise to that foul stigms on Christendom, the African slave-trade; which was commenced soon after the first colony was established, and has been continued to the present time. By this infamous traffic, millions of the unhappy Africans have been torn from their native country, and doomed to a miserable

bervitude.

THE UNITED STATES.*

SECTION I.

Settlement and Early History of the Colonies: - Virginia, New York; Colonies of New England; Indian Wars; Maryland; Pennsylvania. - From A. D. 1607 to 1682.

1. The vanity of nations, like that of families, inclines them to lay claim to a high antiquity; and the obscurity in which their early history is, in most instances, involved, affords them an opportunity to indulge this propensity. But with regard to the United States, circumstances are different. The vanity of the people of this country inclines them to dwell upon their recent origin, and their rapid growth; and the promise which these afford of future greatness. Of all independent nations of any importance, now existing, this has had the most recent origin, and its early history is the best known: nor do the annals of the world afford another instance of a nation rising, in so short a space of time from its first settlement, to an equal degree of power and freedom.

2. Various circumstances have concurred to promote the rapid increase in population and wealth, and the progress of society, which have been witnessed in this country. The first settlers were emigrants from countries advanced in civilization, and they brought with them the arts of civilized life. A great portion of them were men distinguished for intelligence and enterprise, and were strenuous advocates for civil and religious liberty; and at the first foundation of their settlements, they paid particular attention to the promotion of education. A vast field of enterprise has been constantly presented before them, with ample rewards to industry. The means of subsistence have been abundant and easily obtained; and extensive tracts of fertile and unoccupied lands, suitable for new settlements, have always been procurable on moderate terms. The political and commercial relations of

The national existence of the United States, properly so called, commenced July 4th, 1776. Before that period, the inhabitants were in a state of colonial dependence on Great Britain, and were styled the British Colonies in America. Louisiana, which was formerly a French colony, and Florida, formerly a Spanish one, have since been ansexed to the United States.

the inhabitants have connected them with the most enlightened nations in the world; and have afforded them the means of being acquainted with the progress of literature and science. and with the various improvements in the arts of civilized life.

3. The colonization of this country originated either in religious persecution, carried on in England against the Puritans and other denominations of Christians, or in visionary schemes of adventurers, who set out for the new world in quest of settlements, and in pursuit of gain. It was the former cause which peopled the colonies of New England; and it was to the latter that the colonies of Virginia and New York owed their origin. These may be considered as the original

or parent colonies.

4. They struggled long with the hardships and difficulties incident to all new establishments on barbarous shores, remote from civilized society, and from the means of procuring aid in supplying their wants, and in protecting themselves against the hostilities to which they were exposed. They were at times, reduced to great extremities by sickness, disease, and want, and by the attacks and depredations of the Indians, insomuch that, in some instances, it was resolved to abandon the settlement of the country as impracticable. All these impediments, however, being gradually overcome, by perseverance, industry, and enterprise, the colories at last began to flourish, and to increase both in wealth and population.

5. The first grant from the crown of England, under which effectual settlements were made in North America, was dated April 10, 1606. By this charter, all the country in America, between lat. 34° and 45° N., was called Virginia. But Ly this charter, two companies were constituted; one called the London Company, the other the Plymouth Company. To the former was assigned the territory between lat. 34° and 41° N., called South Virginia; to the latter, the part of the territory lying to the north, called North Virginia.

6. Some unsuccessful attempts to form a settlement in Virginia before this charter was granted, have been already mentioned. The first effectual attempt was made in 1607, by a company of 105 adventurers, who came in a vessel commanded by Captain Newport. They sailed up the Powhatan or James River, built a fort, and commenced a town, which, in honor of king James, they called Jamestown. The government of the colony was, at first, administered by a council of seven persons with a president chosen from among their number.

7. The name of the first president was Wingfield; but the most distinguished member of the council was Captain John Smith, who was the second year chosen president, and who has been styled the Father of the colony. He had commanded a company of cavalry in the Austrian army, in a war with the Turks: had been taken prisoner and sent to Constantinople as a slave; from which condition he had extricated himself. He was a man of undaunted courage, romantic disposition, and an ardent spirit of enterprise; and to his superior talents, the company were greatly indebted for their success.

8. The colonists were soon involved in contests with the Indians, whose hostilities against the English were not unprovoked, as they had been previously treated by them with cruelty. In 1585, Sir Richard Grenville burnt a whole Indian town, and destroyed their corn, in revenge for their stealing a silver cup; and Mr. Lane, the leader of the adventurers left by Sir Richard, slew a sachem, and killed and took captive

several Indians.

9. The year in which the settlement was commenced, an accident happened to Captain Smith, which lent to his history the attraction of romance. While engaged in hunting, he was taken prisoner by a body of 200 Indians; but he so charmed them by his arts and his valor, that they released him. Soon afterwards, he was again taken by another party of 300, who carried him in triumph before Powhatan, the greatest chief in the region.

10. The sentence of death was pronounced upon him; his head was placed on a stone, and the savages were about to beat out his brains, when *Pocahontas*, the favorite daughter of the chief, who was only about 12 years of age, after having in vain implored mercy for him, rushed forward, and placing her head upon that of the captive, appeared determined to share his fate. Powhatan relented, and set the prisoner free.

11. Two years afterwards (1609), Pocahontas gave information to captain Smith of a plot formed by the Indians for the destruction of the colony, which was, by this means, prevented. This extraordinary Indian female was afterwards married, with the consent of her father, to *Mr. Rolfc*, a respectable young planter. Their nuptials were celebrated with great pomp, and Pocahontas was highly useful in preserving peace between the colonists and Indians. She accompanied her husband to England; was instructed in the Christian religion, and baptized She died soon after her return to America at the age of about 22. leaving one son, from

whom are sprung some of the most respectable families in

Virginia.

12. During the first year, the colonists suffered severely by the scarcity and badness of provisions; diseases were in consequence introduced which, in a few months, swept away one half of their number. But others were added by new arrivals, so that, at the end of the year, they amounted to 200.

13. In the latter part of the year 1609, captain Smith, at once the shield and sword of the colony, returned to England. Soon after his departure, the company was reduced to the greatest extremities. A party of 30 men, under Captain Ratcliffe, were all slain by the Indians: and in consequence of a waste of provisions, a most distressing famine prevailed, which was known for many years afterwards, by the name of the starving time.

14. So dreadful was its effect, that in the space of 6 months, the colonists were reduced from nearly 500 to 60. This small remainder, being exceedingly enfeebled and disheartened. resolved to abandon the settlement, and return to England; and for this purpose they had actually embarked; but meeting with Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor, under a new charter, with 150 men, and a large supply of provisions, they were induced to remain; and the affairs of the company soon began to assume a more auspicious appearance.

15. At the expiration of 12 years from the first settlement, there remained only about 600 persons; but during the year 1619, the number was increased by the arrival of 11 ships, bringing 1216 new settlers. The planters were mostly adventurers, destitute of families, and came with the hope of obtaining wealth, intending eventually to return; but with a view to make their residence permanent, and attach them to the country, an expedient was devised for supplying them with wives; and for this purpose, in the years 1620 and 1621, 150 unmarried females, "young and uncorrupt," were sent over from England, to be sold to such as were inclined to purchase. The price of a wife, at first, was 100 pounds of tobacco; but as the number for sale decreased, the price was raised to 150 pounds; the tobacco being valued at three shillings a pound. About the same time, 20 negroes were carried to Virginia in a Dutch vessel, and sold for slaves. This was the commencement, in English America, of the unhappy system of slavery.

16. The colonists having turned their attention to agriculture, particularly to the cultivation of tobacco, and their numbers being increased yearly by the arrival of new emigrants. began to enjoy a degree of prosperity, when, in 1622, they experienced a stroke which came near proving fatal. Opecancanough, the successor of Powhatan, concerted a plan for the destruction of the settlement; and in so artful a manner was the plot devised, that it might have been effectually accomplished, if a large part of the colonists had not been informed of it a few hours before the time appointed for its execution. The Indians, notwithstanding, succeeded in putting to death, almost instantaneously, 347 persons. A war of extermination followed this massacre; not long afterwards, another distressing famine; and in 1624, of 9,000 persons who had been sent from England, only 1,800 existed in the colony. But its severe losses were soon repaired by new arrivals.

17. The colony suffered by restrictions on its trade and by the arbitrary government of Sir John Harvey; but in 1639, Sir William Berkeley, a man of superior talents, was appointed governor; and during his administration, which lasted, except during the protectorate of Cromwell, nearly 40 years, it was generally prosperous. The restrictions, however, imposed upon its trade by Charles II., occasioned discontents; and, in 1676, near the end of Berkeley's administration, gave rise to an insurrection, memorable in the history of Virginia, and known by the name of Bacon's Rebellion, so called from its ladder. Many parts of the colony were given up to pillage; Jamestown was burnt; and all the horrors of a civil war were felt for a time, till at last the rebellion was terminated by the death of Bacon.

18. The population, in 1660, amounted to about 30,000, and in the 28 succeeding years, the number was doubled. The first adventurers came out with the hope of acquiring wealth by the discovery of the precious metals; and the ships in which they arrived, were sent back, one of them loaded by the miners with a glittering earth, which they vainly hoped contained gold; the other, loaded with cedar. In about 1616, the cultivation of tobacco was commenced, which soon became the chief object of attention with the colonists, and constituted the principal part of their property. It formed the medium of trade, and was received by the government in the payment of taxes.

19. In 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch, on a voyage in quest of a north-west passage to India, discovered the noble river which bears his name. The first permanent settlements were made by Putch adventurers,

who erected two forts, in or about the year 1614, one at Albany, the other on Mankattan island, where the city of New York now stands. The country was called New Netherlands; and the settlement on Manhattan island was named New Amsterdam, which names they retained till the conquest of the country by the English.

20. While in the possession of the Dutch, the government of the colony was administered by three successive governors, namely, Van Twiller, Kieft, and Stuyvesant. The extension of the English settlements gave rise to misunderstandings, and the Dutch governors were engaged in a series of disputes and

contests.

21. In 1664, Charles II. of England, being then at war with the Dutch, granted the country to his brother the Duke of York: governor Stuyvesant was compelled to capitulate to an English force, under Colonel Nicholls; the whole territory became subject to the British crown, and in honor of the duke, the country and city were named New York.

22. The Plymouth Company, to whom the country of North Virginia was assigned, commenced a small settlement on the river Sagadahoc or Kennebec, in 1607, the same year in which Jamestown was founded; but it was soon abandoned. In 1614, Captain Smith, having visited the country, and examined its shores and harbors, on his return to England, constructed a map of it, which he presented to prince Charles, who changed its name from North Virginia to New England; and a patent was granted, by king James, in 1620, to the Duke of Lenox, Ferdinando Gorges, and others, styled "the Council of Plymouth in the country of Devon, for settling and governing New England." This patent granted to them the country extending from lat. 40° to 48° N.; and it was the foundation of the subsequent grants of the several parts of the territory.

23. During the year in which this patent was granted, the first permanent settlement was commenced in New England, at Plymouth, ir Massachusetts, by 101 Puritans, a class of dissenters from the church of England, who were now beginning to become numerous, and who were called Puritans, because they were desirous of a purer form of discipline and worship. This small colony formed a part of the congregation of John Robinson, who is regarded as the founder of the de-

nomination of Independents or Congregationalists.

24. Being driven from England by persecution, several years before, the congregation, together with their minister, had fled

to *Holland*; but a part of them were, at length, induced to seek an as, lum, where they might enjoy religious liberty, in the wilds of America. The principle of religious toleration was not, at this period, understood or practised by any denomination of Christians. The Puritans were severely persecuted by the church of England; but their own principles, also, were intolerant; and in their turn, they persecuted those who differed from them.

25. The colonists sailed, on the 6th of September, from Plymouth in England, in the Mayflower, for Hudson's river; but the master of the vessel, influenced by bribery, carried them farther to the north; and the first land which they discovered was Cape Cod. They arrived on the coast in November; and as they had not determined on the place for their settlement, parties were despatched to explore the country, who, after incredible suffering from the severity of the weather, found a harbor. Here they landed, December 22d, 1620, and began to build a town, which they called Plymouth, from the name of the town which they last left in England.

26. The difficulties and sufferings which they had to encounter were sufficient to dishearten men of ordinary resolution. Cast upon an unknown and barbarous coast, in a severe climate, and at an inclement season; worn down with their long voyage, excessive fatigue, the severity of the weather, and the want of comfortable provisions and habitations, they were, soon after their arrival, visited with distressing sickness, and in three months, reduced to about one half of their original number. The sickness was so general, that, at some times, there were only 6 or 7 well persons in the company.

27. They instituted a republican form of government, and chose John Carver for their first governor, who, dying in 1621, was succeeded by William Bradford. The governor, who was chosen annually, had at first but one assistant; afterwards five; and the number was, at length, increased to seven. On the opening of the spring, they sowed barley and peas, which produced but an indifferent crop. They were assisted in planting and dressing Indian corn or maize, which they had never before seen, by Squanto, a friendly Indian: this afforded them a great part of their subsistence; and it has ever since been a staple production of the country. For several years, the whole property of the settlers was held in common.

28. In order to protect themselves against the hostilities of the Indians, they formed a military organization, and Miles Stani'ish was chosen their captain.—In March, 1621, they

were visited by Samoset, a sagamore or petty sachem, who addressed them with the friendly salutation of "Welcome, Englishmen: From him they obtained important information respecting the country, and earned that, not long before, a mortal pestilence had swept off almost all the Indians in the vicinity. By his assistance they entered into a treaty of peace and friendship with Massasoit, sachem of the Wampanoags, who was the most powerful Indian chief in the region, and from whom the name of Massachusetts is derived. This treaty, which was of great importance to the colony, was strictly observed till the commencement of Philip's war, a period of 54 years.

29. During subsequent years, there were numerous arrivals of other persons from England, whose character and views were similar to those of the first settlers at Plymouth. In 1628, the foundation was laid of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, by a company of adventurers under John Endicott, who formed a settlement at Naumkeag, now Salem: and in 1630, 1500 persons under John Winthrop, who was appointed governor, arrived at Charlestown, and soon afterwards commenced the settlement of Boston and other towns in the vicinity.

30. In 1623, the settlement of New Hampshire was commenced at Dover and Portsmouth, by persons sent out by John Mason and Ferdinando Gorges, to whom the country had been granted. The former became afterwards sole proprietor of a large part of the country, and the claims of his heirs furnished a fruitful source of contention. The settlements were annexed to Massachusetts in 1641, and so continued till 1679, when a separate government was instituted for New Hampshire.

31. In 1635, the settlement of the colony of Connecticut was begun, at Windsor and Wethersfield, by about 60 persons from Massachusetts; and in 1638, the colony of New Haven was commenced by Theophilus Eaton, John Davenport, and others. These colonies were united into one in 1665.

32. The settlement of Rhode Island was commenced in 1636, at Providence, by Roger Williams, a minister of the gospel, who had been banished from Massachusetts on account of his religious opinions.

33. As the quiet enjoyment of religious liberty was the leading cause of the formation of these settlements, the founders of them were particularly solicitous with regard to the support and encouragement of religion. Among the early settlers, there were many men of talents and liberal educa-

tion; and a wilderness has probably never been planted by a body of men, who were more mindful of the interests of learning, or more attentive to the establishment of schools. In ten years after the first settlement of Massachusetts Bay, Harvard College was founded at Cambridge.

34. The colonists were possessed of many excellent traits of character. Their enterprise and industry, their leve of liberty, their attention to education, their morality and piety, entitle them to respect and admiration. They were not, however, without faults, some of which were vices of the age; others

belonged more particularly to themselves.

35. With regard to differences in religious opinions, their views were narrow and intolerant. In some instances, it was enacted, that none except members of the church should have a right to vote at elections, or should be eligible to any office. Their rigid principles also appear in the severity with which they punished many offences, which are not now considered as properly coming under the cognizance of the civil law. The close inspection which they practised with regard to every man's principles and conduct, secured for many years very strict morals, and great uniformity of doctrines. But it was not possible to prevent differences of opinion; and when these arose, the severity with which those were treated who avowed unpopular sentiments, occasioned many heart-burnings and mutual reproaches.

36. The colonists landed in the country without having obtained the consent of the natives; yet the principle upon which they proceeded was, before taking possession of the lands, to procure them by a regular purchase of the ladians, who were considered as the rightful owners of the soil. The treatment, however, which the Indians in America had generally received from European adventurers, had given tham too much reason to distrust the friendly dispositions of white men; and it must be acknowledged, that the New England colonists, in their proceedings with regard to this injured people, were not always pacific or just.

37. In the third year after the formation of the settlement at Plymouth, Captain Standish, at the head of a small party, killed a number of Indians who had manifested hostile intentions. When an account of this transaction was sent to Mr. Robinson, in Holland, in his next letter to the governor, he exclaimed, in a manner that does honor to his feelings, "Oh that you had converted some, before you had killed any!"

The settlers at Plymouth and in Massachusetts Bay, however, had but little trouble with the Indians for many years. But the colony of Connecticut, in 1637, two years after it was first planted, was engaged in a severe contest with the Pequods, a warlike tribe, inhabiting a district now forming the south-east part of that state. The Pequods had previously made depredations on the infant settlement; and killed several individuals. The Indians were entirely defeated by the colonists, under Captain Mason, with the loss of between 600 and 700 killed and taken prisoners, being about two thirds of their whole number; and 70 of their wigwams were also burnt. Of the English, only 2 were killed, and 16 wounded.

38. Not long after this contest, the colonists had strong apprehensions of a general combination of the Indians for extirpating them; the proceedings of the Dutch and the French also created alarm. In order, therefore, to promote their security and welfare, the four colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, united in a confederacy, in 1643, by the name of the *United Colonies of New England*. Each one elected two delegates, who were to assemble by rotation, in the different colonies, annually, or oftener if necessary. This union, which subsisted a little more than 40 years, till the colonies were deprived of their charters by James II., was of great service in promoting harmony among themselves, and increasing their means of defence. In it we may see the germ of that grand confederacy which led to American Independence.

39. The most general and destructive Indian war in which the colonies were ever involved, took place in 1675 and 1676, with *Philip*, king or sachem of the *Wampanoags*, and son of *Massasoit*, whose principal residence was at *Mount Hope*, in Rhode Island. He was the most formidable enemy that the colonists had ever known; a man of great talents and undaunt-

ed courage, a shrewd politician, and a great warrior.

40. The Indian tribes, perceiving the English settlements extending in every direction, determined to make one great and combined effort, to avoid the loss of their hunting grounds, their inheritance, their liberty and independence. An extensive combination was accordingly formed among the different tribes, for the purpose of the total destruction of the colonies, and of this combination Philip was the leader.

41. A more immediate cause of the war was the circumstance that Sausaman, a Christian Indian, gave information to the colonists of the plot which nad been formed against

them, for which three Indians, at the instigation of Philip, murdered him. The murderers were tried and executed by the English. In order to avenge their death, Philip soon commenced his hostile attacks, and by his agents, drew into the contest most of the tribes in New England.

- 42. The Indians had now acquired, in some degree, the use of fire-arms. Hostilities were conducted with great spirit and energy on both sides, and with the usual ferocity of savage warfare. The greatest battle, not only during this contest, but in the early history of the country, is known by the name of he Swamp Fight, which took place in December, 1675, in the Narraganset country, at the Indian fortress, in a large swamp situated in the western part of what is now the township of South Kingston. The English, who were commanded by Josiah Winslow, governor of Plymouth, obtained a great victory, yet with the loss of 230 men killed and wounded; and among their slain were six brave captains. About 1,000 of the Indians are supposed to have perished, besides many women and children; and 500 or 600 of their wigwams were burnt.
- 43. The Indians never entirely recovered from the effect of this defeat. They were not, however, subdued, but continued their depredations by massacring the inhabitants, and burning the towns. At length, in August, 1676, the great warrior Philip was shot by an Indian whom he had offended, and who joined a party under the famous Captain Benjamin Church. This was a fatal stroke to the power of the Aborigines, and excited the liveliest joy and exultation in the colonies. Most of the hostile Indians soon afterwards submitted, or retreated from the country. After the termination of this conflict, the principal sufferings which the New England colonies endured from the hostilities of the Indians, took place during the wars with the French, who employed the savages as auxiliaries.
- 44. This war afflicted almost every family in New England with the most painful privations. The whole English population was computed, at this time, to amount to about 60,000; of which nearly 600 men, comprising a considerable part of the strength of the country, fell during the contest, besides many women and children; and others were led into a miserable captivity. About 600 buildings, mostly dwelling-houses, were consumed; 12 or 13 towns were destroyed, many others damaged, and many cattle killed. The country was in deep mourning, there being scarcely a family or an individual, who had no lost either a relative or a friend.

45. The founder of Maryland was Sir George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, and an eminent statesman, who had been secretary to James I. He first visited Virginia with a view to form a settlement of Catholics; but meeting there with an unwelcome reception, he fixed his attention on the territory to the north of the Potomac, and obtained a grant of it from Charles I. From the queen of Charles, Henrietta Maria, the country was named Maryland. But before the patent was completed, Sir George died, and the grant was given to his eldest son, Cecilius, who succeeded to his titles, and for upwards of 40 years directed the affairs of the colony, displaying an enlightened understanding and a benevolent heart.

46. Leonard Calvert, brother to Cecilius, was appointed the first governor; and he, together with about 200 persons, commenced the settlement of the town of St. Mary's, in 1634. The leading features of the policy adopted in this colony, do honor to the founders. Universal toleration of religion was established, and a system of equity and humanity was practised

with regard to the Indian tribes.

47. In 1681, the celebrated William Penn obtained of Charles II. a grant of the tract of country, afterwards named from him Pennsylvania. It was granted to him in consideration of debts due from the crown of England for services performed by his father, admiral Penn. In 1632, he arrived in the country, accompanied by about 2,000 associates, who were, most of them, like himself, of the denomination of Franks or Quakers; and in the next year he laid out the plan of the city of Philadelphia.

48. This great man and wise legislator made civil and religious liberty the basis of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government. In his intercourse with the Indians, he was governed by the strictest principles of equity and humanity, treating them as men and brethren, possessing the same rights as white men. Soon after his arrival, he summoned them to a council, and obtained of them, by fair purchase, a cession of as much land as his exigencies required.

49. The same course was pursued by his followers; the treaties were preserved inviolate on both sides; and a good understanding remained uninterrupted for more than 70 years. It was seen by mankind, with surprise, that kindness and good faith were a better protection than the sword, even to a

settlement planted among savages; and that 'his excellent man, by his humane, equitable, and pacific policy, without any warlike preparations or means of defence, secured to his colony peace, prosperity, and safety, far more effectually than Lycurgus secured the same advantages to his country, by rendering the Spartans a nation of soldiers.

50. No one of the other colonies made so rapid advances in population and prosperity as this. The fertility of the soil, the salubrity of the climate, the uninterrupted peace with the natives, and the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, held out inducements to the Quakers, and other persecuted and oppressed people in Europe, to seek an asylum in Pennsylvania.

51. In the original foundation of Rhode Island, by Roger Williams; of Maryland, by Lord Baltimore; and on a more extended scale, of Pennsylvania, by William Penn, the free toleration of religion was recognized; and these were the first civil communities in which this liberal and enlightened principle was legally established and acted upon. The inhabitants of the New England colonies, with the exception of Rhode Island, in the early ages of their history, as has already been mentioned, persecuted those who differed from them with regard to religion; and the inhabitants of Virginia harassed those who dissented from the church of England.

SECTION II.

Oppressive Measures relating to the Colonies: French Wars; Capture of Louisburg; Expedition against New England; Conquest of Canada.—From A. D. 1676 to 1763.

1. From the time of the foundation of the first permanent English settlement in North America, the throne of England had been occupied by sovereigns of the Stuart Family, the influence of whose arbitrary principles tended to increase the number of emigrants from Great Britain to America; but this influence was also felt on this side of the Atlantic, as well as on the other. The colonies were repeatedly alarmed by the danger of losing their charters, which were at last wrested from them; and several of the governors appointed by the crown occasioned great uneasiness by their oppressive measures.

2. A number of Englishmen, after having visited the colonies, and become, from different reasons, hostile to them, on

their return to Great Britain, prejudiced the king and council against them. Of these no one so much distinguished himself as *Edward Randolph*, who was sent over to America by Charles II., in 1676, and who, according to his own account, crossed the Atlantic 16 times in 9 years, chiefly for the purpose of destroying the liberties of New England. This purpose he finally accomplished, and a writ was issued against the several charters, in 1683.

3. Sir Edmund Andros, who had been for some time governor of New York, was appointed by James II. governor also of New England. He arrived in Boston, in 1686, and summoned the colonies to surrender their charters. The charter of Massachusetts was given up, but that of Connecticut was concealed, by captain Wadsworth, in the hollow of an oak in Hartford. Sir Edmund began with high professions of his good intentions; but he soon threw off the mask, governed in the most oppressive manner, and attempted to render himself as despotic in America, as the king was disposed to be in

England.

4. Happily, however, the reign of tyranny was of short duration: the arbitrary proceedings of James II. had rendered him so odious, that he was compelled to flee from his kingdom. The news of the *Revolution* of 1688, in England, and the accession of William and Mary to the throne, was received, in this country, with ecstasy, and was regarded as an event which brought deliverance from despotism to America, as well as to Great Britain. The inhabitants of Boston seized Sir Edmund, together with Randolph and about 50 others, and put them in close confinement, where they were kept till the leaders were ordered back to England for trial. Connecticut and Rhode Island immediately resumed their charters, and reëstablished their former government.

5. The people of Massachusetts Bay petitioned the king for a restoration of their charter. This was, however, refused; but a new charter, less favorable to liberty than the old one, was granted, in 1692, by which the colonies of Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth were united into one, by the name of Massachusetts; to which were also annexed the provinces of Maine

and Nova Scotia.

6. Under the old charter, the governor, together with all the magistrates and officers of state, was chosen annually by the general assembly, the members of which and the assistants of the governor were elected by the freemen of the colony. By the new charter, the appointment of the governor, lieutenant-

governor, secretary, and the officers of the admiraty, was taken from the colonists, and was vested in the crown. The right of choosing representatives was the only privilege which was allowed to the people. In order to render the charter more acceptable, the king appointed Sir William Phips, a native of Maine, the first governor.

7. Scarcely had the colonies emerged from one scene of trouble, before they were involved in another. The Revolution in England restored, in a great measure, their liberties; but it soon subjected them to the evils of war with the French and the Indians. The war, during the reign of William and Mary, lasted from 1690 to the peace of Ryswick, in 1697; that during the reign of queen Anne, from 1702 to the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

8. During the 25 years preceding the peace of Utrecht, the country had enjoyed only 4 or 5 years of exemption from war. For several years, not less than a fifth part of the inhabitants, able to bear arms, were in actual service; and sometimes one half of the militia. Those who were not in service, were obliged to guard their fields and families at home, and were subject to constant alarms. The resources of the country were greatly diminished; the aspect of affairs gloomy; many fields untilled; extensive tracts desolated; the growth of the colonies exceedingly checked; their frontiers laid waste; several towns burnt; and the greatest barbarities perpetrated.

9. It has been computed that, during these wars, in the colonies of New England and New York, as many as 8,000 young men, the flower of the country, fell by the sword of the enemy, or by diseases contracted in the public service. Most of the families were in mourning for the loss of friends, who

were either killed or led into a miserable captivity.

10. After the peace of Utrecht, the colonies enjoyed, for some years, a state of comparative tranquillity. But in 1744, another war broke out between Great Britain and France, of which the effects were felt in America, and which was here rendered memorable, chiefly by the capture of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, by troops from New England, under the command of general Sir William Pepperell. Louisburg had been fortified by the French at a vast expense, and was a place of such immense strength, as to be called the Dunkirk or Gibraltar of America; and the reduction of it was deemed an object of the highest importance to New England.

- 11. The troops under the command of general Pepperell, amounting to 4,070, the greater part from Massachusetts, arrived at Canso, on the 4th of April, 1745, and in three weeks after, were joined by commodore Warren, with four ships from England. The siege was soon after commenced, and continued till the 16th of June, when Louisburg, together with the island of Cape Breton, was surrendered by the French commander.
- 12. The news of this brilliant achievement occasioned great exultation in the colonies, and encouraged them to attempt the conquest of all the French possessions in North America. It also roused the government of France to seek revenge; and in 1746, an armament under the Duke d'Anville, was sent to America, consisting of 11 ships of the line, and 30 smaller vessels of war, besides transports, with upwards of 3,000 regular troops, and 40,000 stands of arms for the use of the Canadians and Indians. The object of this armament, which was the most formidable that had ever been sent to North America, was to recover Louisburg, and to distress, if not to conquer, New England.

13. The first intelligence of the sailing of this fleet, filled the colonists with consternation; but they were delivered from their fears in a most extraordinary and providential manner. The fleet had a long and disastrous passage, and sustained so great damages by storms, and losses by shipwrecks, that on its arrival, the force was reduced more than one half. A mortal sickness prevailed among the troops, which carried off a great part of them; and the two principal commanders died suddenly, one or both of them by suicide, in a fit of despair.

14. The remaining ships returned singly to France, without having accomplished a single object of the expedition; and the whole design against the colonies was frustrated without the intervention of human aid.—By the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, Louisburg was given up to France, to the no

small mortification of the colonies.

15. The French, having been the first discoverers of the river Mississippi, claimed the country watered by it and its tributaries; and in the succeeding period of peace, they made great exertions to connect their colonies of Canada and Louisiana, by extending the line of military posts from Lake Ontario to the Ohio, and down that river and the Mississippi, to New Orleans.

16. A company of persons belonging to England and Virginia, associated by the name of the Ohio Company, obtained

from the king a grant of 600,000 acres of land, on and near the Ohio, for the purpose of carrying on the for trade with the Indians and settling the country; and they established some trading-houses on the river. But as the French claimed an exclusive right to this country and its trade, they seized some of the traders, and carried them prisoners to Canada.

17. The Company complained loudly of these aggressions on a territory, which had been ceded to it, as a part of Virginia; and Robert Dinwiddie, the governor, having laid the subject before the assembly of that colony, it was determined that it should be demanded, in the name of the king, that the French should desist from designs, which were deemed a violation of existing treaties. George Washington, then in his 22d year, was, in 1753, sent on this service to M. de St. Pierre, the French commandant on the Ohio, who stated to Washington, that he had acted according to his orders.

18. The British government, being informed of the designs of the French, directed the Americans to oppose them by force of arms. A regiment was soon formed, and put under the command of Washington, who was appointed colonel. Troops were raised throughout the colonies; naval and land forces were sent from England; and expeditions were, in 1755, sent

against Nova Scotia, Crown Point, and Niagara.

19. Another expedition against Fort du Quesne, [now Pittsburg] was commanded by general Braddack, who had two English regiments, and a body of colonial troops under colonel Washington; the whole amounting to 1,200. Braddack was an officer of reputation, but neither he nor his English soldiers knew any thing of savage warfare; and being attacked by a party of French and Indians in annbush, he was entirely defeated, and himself slain. Of 85 officers, 64 were killed and wounded, and about half of the privates. Washington, who had two horses shot under him, and four balls shot through his coat, remained unhurt, and led off the remainder of the troops.

20. The expedition against Crown Point was commanded by general Johnson, who was met by the French army, under the command of Dieskau, on the banks of Lake George. A battle ensued, in which Dieskau was repulsed, with the loss of 700 or 800 men, and himself mortally wounded; but no attempt was made upon Crown Point. The expedition against Niagara and Fort Frontenac, under the command of governor Shirley of Massachusetts, was delayed till it became too late in the season to effect any thing; and the campaign closed

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without any one of the objects of the three expeditions having been attained.

21. The war, which had been carried on two years without any formal proclamation, was at length declared in 1756. The Marquis de Montcalm succeeded Dieskau; and the chief command of the English troops was first given to the Earl of Loudon, and afterwards to general Abercrombie. Montcalm was an able commander, but the British generals were weak and inefficient; and the campaigns of 1756 and 1757 brought reproach both upon them and the British government, and occasioned chagrin and disappointment in the colonies. But a change having taken place in the English ministry, and William Pitt (afterwards Lord Chatham) being placed at the head of the administration, every thing immediately assumed a new aspect

22. This great man, who was popular in America, addressed a circular letter to the colonial governors, assuring them that an effectual force should be sent from England, and calling upon them to raise as large bodies of men as the popula tion would allow. The number of men brought into the service was 50,000, of which 20,000 were raised in America. Three expeditions were resolved on; the first against Louisburg, the second against Ticonderoga, and the third against

Fort Du Quesne.

23. In the expedition against Louisburg, the land forces, amounting to 14,000, were led by general Amherst, next to whom, in command, was general Wolfe; and a large naval armament was commanded by admiral Boscawen. After a considerable resistance, the fortress was surrendered, with the garrison, consisting of nearly 6,000 men, and a great quantity of military stores. This was the severest blow the French

had received since the commencement of the war.

24. The attack on Ticonderoga was conducted by general Abercrombie, the commander-in-chief: but owing to his injudicious management, he was repulsed with the loss of about 2,000 men. A detachment of 3,000 men, under colonel Bradstreet, took and destroyed Fort Frontenac. The expedition against Fort Du Quesne was conducted by general Forbes, who took possession of the post, and changed its name to Pittsburg.

25. After the disaster at Ticonderoga, Abercrombie fell into contempt; and the chief command was given to general Amherst. The campaign of 1759 had for its object the entire conquest of Canada. The British army was divided into t'ree parts: me first division, under Wolfe, was to make au

attempt on Quebec; the second, under Amherst, was to attack Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and the third, ...nder Prideaux, was to be directed against the strong hold of Niagara.

26. On the approach of Amherst, Ticonderoga and Crown Point were evacuated. Niagara was besieged, and after a severe action, it fell into the hands of the English; but four days before the conquest, general *Prideaux* was killed.

27. By the taking of these forts, great advantages were gained; but a far more important and arduous enterprise was intrusted to the heroic general Wolfe. This was the reduction of Quebec, a place of immense strength, both by nature and art, and protected by about 10,000 men, under that able and hitherto successful general, Montcalm. But the difficulties which the Eaglish general had to surmount, served only to inflame his ardent mind, and his military enthusiasm. Having landed his army, consisting of 8,000 men, on the island of Orleans, below Quebec, he made some unsuccessful attempts to reduce the city.

28. He then conceived the bold design of scaling, during the night, a steep precipice on the north bank of the river, and in this way to reach the *Heights or Plains of Abraham* behind the city, where it was least defensible. This he effected before Montcalm was aware of his design, and the whole army was arrayed on the plains before sunrise. A hot battle followed, in which the French were entirely defeated, with the loss of 1,500 men, and their four principal commanders: the English lost 500, together with their two first officers. The two great rivals, Wolfe and Montcalm, were both mortally wounded before the battle was terminated.

29. Wolfe, having received a fatal wound, was carried to the rear; where, at his request, he was raised up, that he might take a view of the engagement. Faint with the loss of blood, and his eyes dimmed by the approach of death, he was roused at the words, "They fly, they fly!" "Who fly?" he exclaimed. He was told, "The enemy." "Then," said the hero, "I die contented;" and having said this, he expired in the moment of victory.—The same military enthusiasm animated Montecalm. Being told that he could not continue more than a few hours, he said, "It is so much the better; I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec."

30. This battle was followed by the reduction of the city, and ultimately by that of all Canada. By the peace of Paris, in 1763, the French northern possessions in America—Canada Nova Stotia, and the island of Cape Breton—were con-

firmed to Britain. The success of this war, joyful as it was to England, was still more so to the colonies, who now expected a release from the heavy calamities, which they had long suffered from hostilities with the French and Indians.

SECTION III.

Disputes between Great Britain and the Colonies: Commence ment of Hostilities: Battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill: Declaration of Independence.—From A. D. 1763 to 1776.

1. The colonists, from the time of the first settlement of the country, had been ardently attached to liberty, and extremely jealous of any invasion of their rights. The emi grants from England to America had been induced to leave their native land principally by the idea that they might escape from oppression and arbitrary power, and might enjoy freedom, both civil and religious. They cherished, however, a strong attachment to the parent country, always acknowledged themselves subjects of the crown of Great Britain, and were loyal and faithful subjects.

2. Notwithstanding their various embarrassments, the long and distressing wars with the Indians and French, and the severe restrictions which were imposed by Great Britain upon their trade, and which were borne, in some instances, with extreme impatience; yet, amidst these difficulties, the colonies made rapid progress in wealth and population, and in all the arts of civil life; and at the peace of 1763, they had risen to a high state of prosperity. They abounded in spirited and

active individuals of all denominations.

3. After the conquest of Canada had freed them from the distresses occasioned by war with the French and savages, and given them a short interval of repose, troubles assailed them from a new and unexpected quarter. The mother country began speedily to assert her sovereignty over them, and to interfere in their civil concerns, in a manner which excited the most serious alarm.

4. The war which Great Britain had carried on in defence of her American possessions, had made a vast addition to her national debt, and greatly increased the burdens of her subjects; and a plan of raising a revenue by taxing the colonies, was formed by parliament, under pretext that the mother

country might obtain indemnification for the expenses of the war.

5. But it was maintained, on the other hand, by the colonies, that if the war had been waged by Great Britain on their account, it was because they were useful to her; that by the advantages which she derived from the monopoly of their commerce, she was interested in their defence; that by the happy termination of the war, they derived no benefit which was not a source of ultimate profit to the mother country; and that their own exertions had been greater in proportion to their ability than hers. They also urged their claim to all the rights of English subjects, and maintained that of these rights, none was more indisputable than that no subject could be deprived of his property but by his own consent, expressed in person or by his representatives.

6. In the beginning of the year 1764, parliament passed an act by which duties were laid on goods imported from such West India islands as did not belong to Great Britain; and Mr. Grenville, the prime minister, proposed a resolution, "that it would be proper to charge certain stamp duties on the colonies;" but postponed the consideration of that subject to a future session. These proceedings occasioned great uneasiness and alarm, and were remonstrated against by the

colonies.

7. The system, however, was persisted in by parliament, and early in the next year, the Stamp Act was passed, laying a duty on all paper used for instruments of writing, as deeds, notes, &c., and declaring writings on unstamped materials to be null and void. The news of this measure caused a great sensation throughout the country. The assembly of Virginia, being in session when the information arrived, first declared its opposition to the act by a number of spirited resolutions, which were brought forward by Patrick Henry; and Massachusetts, before what had been done in Virginia was known, adopted measures to procure a combined opposition to the offensive laws, and in this important crisis, gave the tone to the subsequent proceedings. In all the colonies, however, a determined spirit of resistance was soon manifested.

8. When the news of the stamp act arrived at Boston, the bells were muffled, and rung a funeral peal. The crown officers were insulted; their houses broken open or demolished; and among other outrages, the populace destroyed a valuable collection of original papers belonging to governor *Hutchinson*, and relating to the history of America. A similar

spirit was manifested in the other colonies; and in New York, the act was hawked about the streets with a Death's head affixed to it, and styled "The Folly of England, and the Ruin of America." The merchants also associated, and agreed to a resolution not to import any more goods from Great Britain, until the act should be repealed.

9. A Colonial Congress, appointed by nine of the colonies, assembled, in 1765, at New York, and published a declaration of their rights and their grievances, insisting particularly on the right of exclusively taxing themselves, and complaining loudly of the stamp act. The merchants of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, entered into an agreement not to import or sell any British goods, so long as the offensive measure should be continued. So general was the opposition, that the stamp officers, in all the colonies, were compelled to resign; and the act was never executed. A change took place in the British cabinet, and through the exertions of Mr. Pitt, Lord Camden, and others, the stamp act was repealed in March, 1766; but the repeal was preceded by a declaration of parliament, "that they had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever."

10. The favorite project of the British ministry of taxing America, was still persisted in; and in June, 1767, an act was passed by parliament imposing a duty on tea, paper, glass, and painters' colors. To render the act effectual, a custom-house was established in Boston, with a board of commissioners for the colonies; and in September, 1768, two British regiments arrived in the town. Another most arbitrary measure of parliament, which gave great offence, was a proposition that offenders in Massachusetts should be sent to England for trial.

11. The feelings of the Americans were now greatly exasperated. To a free and high-spirited people, the presence of an insolent soldiery, sent with a design to intimidate them, could not but be extremely odious and provoking. The causes of irritation were numerous; quarrels daily occurred between the soldiers and the populace; and on the 5th of March, 1770, an affray took place between a detachment of troops under captain *Preston*, and some of the inhabitants of Boston, in which three of the latter were killed, and five dangerously wounded. The funeral of the deceased was conducted with great pomp and ceremony, expressive of the public grief and indignation. After the feelings of the people had, in some measure, subsided, captain Preston and his soldiers were

brought to trial before a court of the province, and a jury of the neighborhood. They had for their counsel John Adams and Josiah Quincy, two leaders of the popular party, and were all acquitted, except two, who were convicted of manslaughter.

12. During this year (1770) Lord North was appointed prime minister of England, and all the duties were repealed except the one of three pence per pound on tea. By this the British ministry intended to establish their right to raise a revenue in the colonies; but the Americans were determined to resist the principle of taxation in every shape.—The years of 1771 and 1772 were not distinguished by any important event.—In 1773, the inhabitants of New York and Philadelphia returned to England the tea ships, which were sent to those cities; but the people of Boston having failed in their attempts to carry into effect the same measure, about twenty persons, disguised like Indians, went on board the vessels, and threw the tea, consisting of 342 chests, into the harbor.

13.—(1774.)—In consequence of these measures, parliament passed further hostile acts; and Boston, being regarded as the chief seat of rebellion, was selected as an object of vengeance. By one of the acts, called the "Boston Port Bill," all intercourse by water with that town was prohibited; the government and public officers were removed to Salera and power was given to the governor to send persons charged with high treason to be tried in Britain. A great part of the inhabitants of Boston were suddenly deprived of the means of subsistence; but their sufferings were relieved by contributions forwarded from different parts. All these vindictive measures only served more firmly to unite the Americans in their resistance to the mother country.

14. In May, General Gage, the commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America, arrived in Boston, commissioned as governor of Massachusetts; and shortly after two more regiments landed with artillery and military stores; events which indicated the determination of the British government to reduce the colonies to submission by force of

15. When the Americans saw, by these proceedings, that a reconciliation was no longer to be expected, and that their rights were to be defended by an appeal to force, they took measures to prepare themselves for the contest. A committee of correspondence was formed by distinguished men in Massachusetts, who framed an agreement, called a Solemn League and Covenant, by which they determined to suspend all in-

tercourse with Great Britain, until their rights should be restored.

16. The general court of Massachusetts resolved that a congress of the colonies was necessary: they also enrolled a body of men to be prepared for marching at a minute's notice, and therefore called *minute-men*: appointed five general officers to command them; formed a committee of safety; and took measures to collect military stores at Concord and Worcester.

17. The plan for assembling a Congress was speedily adopted by all the colonies, except Georgia; and on the 5th of September, the delegates met at Philadelphia. This body, generally known by the name of the Continental Congress, and of which Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was chosen president, was composed of 55 members, most of whom were men of distinguished character and talents. They published a declaration of the rights of the colonies; agreed to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain; and drew up an address to the king, another to the people of Great Britain, and a third to the colonies. These able state papers were highly applauded by Lord Chatham in the British parliament.

18. The disparity between the two contending parties was immense. Great Britain was the first maritime power in the world, and possessed great wealth, vast resources, well-disciplined armies, and experienced and able military and naval commanders. The colonies possessed none of these advantages, and had no general government to control the contending interests of the different parts. They were almost entirely destitute of experienced officers, of disciplined troops, of arms and munitions of war, of armed ships, and of revenue. Their want of these essential articles, particularly of regular and disciplined troops, of good arms and ammunition, and more especially of money, embarrassed all their operations, during the continuance of the war. Their resolution to engage in the unequal contest, was regarded in England with the utmost contempt; and it was confidently expected, by the British ministry, that their efforts would be speedily and easily crushed.

19.—(1775.)—When the proceedings of the American congress were laid before parliament, a joint address of both houses was presented to the king, declaring that a rebellion actually existed in Massachusetts, and beseeching his majesty to suppress it. In the winter and spring of 1775, the army in Boston was increased to 10,000, which number was deemed sufficient

to reduce the rebellious colonies to submission.

20. Soon after, a bill was brought forward in parliament by Lord North, which he termed a conciliatory proposition, the purport of which was, that when any colony should make provision for contributing its proportion to the common defence, and make such provision also for the support of its civil government, as should be approved by his majesty and the parliament, the British government would abstain from taxing such colony, and confine itself to commercial regulations. The design of this proposition was to unite Great Britain, and divide America; but it was universally rejected by the colonies, and by the congress assembled at Philadelphia. It was derided also by the friends of America in parliament as nugatory, since it was the right, not the mode, of taxation, which the colonies disputed.

21. In February, general Gage sent a party of troops to Salem, to seize some cannon which had been lodged there; but finding, on their arrival, that the cannon had been removed, they marched back unmolested. In April, he sent another body of troops, under colonel Smith and major Pitcetrn, to seize some military stores at Concord. The march, though in the night, was discovered; and early in the morning of the 19th of the month, as they passed through Lexington, about 70 men, belonging to the minute company of that town, were found on the green or common, under arms. Major Pitcairn, riding up to them, called out, "Disperse, disperse, you rebels!" Not being obeyed, he discharged his pistol, and ordered his troops to fire. Eight Americans were killed, and several wounded. Thus began the sanguinary contest, which issued in the establishment of American Independence.

22. Having dispersed the militia at Lexington, the British troops proceeded to Concord, and destroyed some military stores collected in that town. On their return, the passage of a bridge over Concord river was disputed; a skirmish ensued; which was attended with some loss on both sides. The people of the neighborhood were soon in arms, and attacked the retreating troops in all directions; some firing behind stone walls and trees, and others pressing upon their rear, till they had returned as far as Lexington, where they were joined by a reinforcement, which secured their retreat to Boston, after a loss of 65 killed, and 180 wounded. Of the Americans, 50 were killed, and 34 wounded.

23. The affair at Lexington was a signal for war. The forts, magazines, and arsenals, throughout the colonies, were instantly secured for the use of the Americans. Regular forces

were raised; a considerable army was soon collected in the vicinity of Boston; a large body of troops arrived from Connecticut, under colonel (afterwards general) *Putnam*; and expeditions were sent to *Ticonderoga* and *Crown Point*, which

secured those important posts

24. The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was in session at the time of the affair at Lexington, despatched an account of the transaction to England, with depositions to prove that the British troops were the aggressors. They declared their loyalty to the crown, but protested that they would not submit to the tyranny of the British ministry. "Appealing to heaven for the justice of our cause," they added. "we determine to die or be free."

25. The second continental or general congress met at Philadelphia in May, and the appellation of the United Colonies was assumed. The congress recommended the observance of a day of humiliation, to implore the blessings of heaven on their sovereign, the king of Great Britain, and the interposition of divine aid to remove their grievances, and restore harmony between the parent state and the colonies, on con-

stitutional terms.

26. Towards the end of May, considerable reinforcements of British troops arrived at Boston, together with generals *Howe*, *Burgoyne*, and *Clinton*, officers who had acquired a high reputation in the preceding war between England and France. Martial law was proclaimed; but a show of reconciliation was still held out by the offer of general *Gage*, in the king's name, of pardon to all such as should return to their allegiance, with the exception of two of the most active patriots in Massachusetts, *John Hancock* and *Samuel Adams*; the former of whom was chosen president of the general congress then in session.

27. It was determined by the Americans to annoy, and, if possible, to dislodge, the British forces in Boston; and for this purpose, a detachment of 1000 mea, under the command of colonel *Prescott*, was ordered, on the 16th of June, to throw up a breast-work on *Bunker Hill*, in Charlestown. They prosecuted the design so silently and expeditiously, that they had nearly completed the redoubt by the return of daylight, without being discovered. Soon after the dawn, the British began to cannonade the works from their ships; and in the morning, the Americans received a reinforcement of 500 men.

28. About noon (17th of June), general Howe, at the head of 3,000 men, advanced to make an attack upon the works. The fire of the Americans was dreadful, insomuch that the

whole British line recoiled, and was thrown into great disorder; but from the failure of ammunition, the Americans were obliged to retreat. The loss of the English amounted to 1,054 in killed and wounded; that of the Americans, to 453; and among their killed was the lamented major-general Warren, who hastened to the field of battle as a volunteer. While the British troops were advancing, orders were given to set fire to Charlestown; and the whole town, consisting of about 400 houses, was laid in ashes. This barbarous act, which was of no advantage to the enemy, served still further to exasperate the Americans.

29. Congress resolved on measures of defence; drew up a second petition to the king, and addresses to the people of Great Britain and of Canada, setting forth their reasons for taking up arms; and organized a continental army. It was a point of immense importance to select a suitable man for commander-in-chief. Fortunately, their choice fell upon George Washington, a member of their body from Virginia, who, in the late French war, had distinguished himself by his courage and talents. He received from nature thind of extraordinary capacity; and was endowed with an uncommon degree of perseverance, prudence, and bravery; while the soundness of his judgment, the elevation of his character, and the purity of his motives, were calculated to inspire the highest confidence. He entered immediately upon the duties of his office; and on the 2d of July, he arrived at Cambridge, where he established his head-quarters.

30. In pursuance of a plan of guarding the frontiers by taking Canada, an expedition was sent against that province, under the command of generals Schuyler and Montgomery, but the former returning, to hold a treaty with the Indians, was prevented by sickness from again joining the army, and the chief command devolved upon the latter. Having taken Fort Chamblee and St. John's, he advanced to Montreal, which surrendered without resistance; thence he proceeded rapidly

to Quebec.

31. Colonel Arnold, with about 1000 men, had been sent from Cambridge to penetrate to that city, by way of the Kennebec and the wilderness. After a march, in which he and his troops were exposed to almost incredible sufferings, he joined Montgomery before Quebec, in November. They made a desperate attempt to carry the city by assault, in which, after displaying the highest intrepidity, they were repulsed, with a loss of upwards of 400 killed and wounded, and general Mont-

gomery was slain. Early in the next season, the Americans

entirely evacuated Canada.

32. While hostilities were thus carried on in the north, the inhabitants of Virginia, who had, from the commencement of the controversy, been in the foremost rank of opposition, were engaged in a contest with the royal governor, Lord Dunmore, whose intemperate measures advanced the cause which he attempted to overthrow. In the end, he was forced to take refuge with his family on board a man-of-war. For some time, he carried on a predatory warfare against the colonies, by landing detachments of troops from the ships, and laid the flourishing town of Norfolk in ashes; but he was finally driven from the coast.

33. In like manner the royal governors of North and South Carolina were expelled by the people; and before the end of the year 1775, all the old governments of the colonies were dissolved. Many adherents to Great Britain (styled Tories), however, remained in the country; and in some of the colonies they were numerous and powerful: part of them, being men of ciple, remained quiet; others were active in their hostility, and contributed to weaken the opposition to the British arms.—In October, general Gage embarked for England, and the chief command of the British forces devolved

upon general Sir William Howe.

34.—(1776.)—The American army investing Boston, amounted to about 15,000 men; but it was, in a great measure, destitute of good arms, ammunition, clothing, and experienced officers; and for want of powder, and for other reasons, was rendered inactive, during the summer and autumn of 1775. In the latter part of the winter, general Washington resolved to expel the British from Boston: in order to divert their attention, a severe cannonade was commenced upon them by the Americans, on the 2d of March; and on the night of the 4th, a battery was erected, with surprising despatch, on Dorchester Heights, which was near enough for annoying them.

35. General Howe prepared to attack the works, but a storm prevented him, till they were rendered so strong, that it was deemed inexpedient. The only alternative now was to evacuate the town; which having been done, general Washington, on the 17th of March, entered triumphantly into Boston, where he was joyfully received as a deliverer, by the oppressed inhab-

itants.

36. The news of the battle of Bunker Hill excited astonishment in England. The partisans of the ministry had been

accustomed to speak of the American troops in terms of the utmost contempt; but it now appeared that they were engaged in a sanguinary contest of doubtful issue; and Lord Chatham, Burke, and Fox, endeavored, but without success, to produce a change in the measures of government. The ministry determined to employ a powerful force to reduce the colonies, and obtained an act of parliament, authorizing them to take into pay 16,000 mercenaries, the troops of the Landgrave of Hesse and the Duke of Brunswick. All trade and intercourse with the colonies were prohibited; and their property on the high seas was declared to be forfeited to those who should capture it. The whole force now destined against America, amounted to about 50,000 men.

37. The controversy had hitherto been, not for independence, but for constitutional liberty. But the hostile measures of the British government produced a strong sensation in the colonies, and they soon began to think seriously of dissolving entirely their allegiance to the mother country. A great and sudden change now took place in the public mind, which was, in part, brought about by a series of papers written by Thomas Paine, and published under the signature of Common Sense, the design of which was to prove the expediency and necessity of a declaration of independence. On the 7th of June, a motion was made, in congress, by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, for declaring the colonies free and independent. A committee, consisting of Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, Sherman, and Livingston, was appointed to prepare a Declaration of Independence; and after a full discussion, the question was carried by a vote nearly unanimous, on the memorable 4th of July, 1776.

38. The Declaration thus concludes: "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states ought to do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on 23.

the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor."

SECTION IV.

Revolutionary War continued;—Battles of Brooklyn, White Plains, Trenton, Princeton, Bennington, Brandywine, Germantown, Stillwater; Surrender at Saratoga; Battles of Monmouth, Rhode Island, Camden, Cow-Pens, Guilford, Eutaw Springs; Surrender at Yorktown;—Independence acknowledged.—From A. D. 1776 to 1783.

1. On the 28th of July, an attack was made by Sir Peter Parker, with a naval force on the fort on Sullivan's Island, with a design to reduce Charleston, in South Carolina. The fire was returned with great effect from the fort, which was commanded by colonel *Moultrie*, and the British were compelled to retreat with much damage to their ships, and with a

loss of upwards of 200 men in killed and wounded.

2. Sir William Howe, after having evacuated Boston, sailed with his army to Halifax. General Washington, believing that the occupation of the important and central position of New York would be a favorite object with the British, soon removed to that city, with the principal part of his army. In June, general Howe arrived off Sandy Hook, and was soon joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, with a great naval armament. The British troops on board amounted to nearly 30,000; to these general Washington could oppose only about 17,000 men, most of them without experience or discipline, and many of them weakened by sickness.

3. Lord Howe and Sir William, being both of them commissioned to settle all difficulties with the colonies, before the commencement of hostilities, the former sent a letter to general Washington, offering terms of accommodation; but the letter being addressed to George Washington, Esq., the commander declined receiving it, or any writing, unless directed to him in his proper character. A second letter was sent by general Howe, directed to George Washington, &c. &c. &c.; but the indignity was repelled. From some conversation, however, which took place, it appeared that Great Britain still held to all her lofty pretensions, merely offering pardon for the past, by way of concession. But Washington observed that

the Americans, having taken up arms to defend their indisputable rights, were conscious of no guilt, and wanted no

pardon.

4. Both sides prepared seriously for action. On the 27th of August, an engagement took place, between Brooklyn and Flatbush. The Americans, under the command of generals Putnam and Sullivan, being surrounded, and exposed to the fire of the Hessians in front, and of the British troops in the rear, were totally defeated, with a loss, according to their own statement, of upwards of 1,000, and according to that of the British, of 3,000. Three American generals, Sullivan, Lord Stirling, and Woodhull, fell into the hands of the enemy, whose loss was only about 300 or 400. During the heat of the engagement, general Washington crossed over from New York to Brooklyn, and made an admirable retreat, on the night of the 29th. It was effected under the cover of a thick fog, with such silence, order, and secrecy, that the British army, which was encamped only a quarter of a mile distant, did not discover it, till it was too late to annoy the Americans.

5. Washington, with a part of his army, retired to White Plains, where, on the 28th of October, an engagement took place, in which several hundred fell. General Howe soon after reduced Fort Washington, on the Hudson, containing a garrison of upwards of 2,000 men, under colonel Magane. The British were now in possession of the city of New York, Long

Island, and Staten Island.

6. Washington, having crossed the Hudson, retreated through New Jersey, by Newark, New Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton; thence he crossed over to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, being closely pursued by the British army, under Lord Cornwallis, who arrived at the river just after the American army had effected the passage. The British troops, in the full career of success, were ordered into winter cantonments.

7. The aspect of American affairs was now exceedingly gloomy. The army was greatly reduced by the loss of men in killed, wounded, and taken; and by the departure of those whose enlistments had expired. To add to the disasters, general Charles Lee had been surprised and taken prisoner at Baskenridge; and the British had seized upon Rhode Island. The whole number of troops under Washington, on the west side of the Delaware, amounted to only about 3,000, many of whom were without shoes or comfortable clothing. In this darkest hour during the war, general Howe issued a proclamation offering parden to all who would submit to royal au-

thority; and many persons abandoned the American cause

and joined the British.

8. Washington, aware of the importance of striking some successful blow, in order to animate the expiring hopes of the country, on the night of the 25th of December, crossed the Delaware, fell on the enemy, at Trenton, by surprise, and took the whole body, consisting of about 1,000 Hessians, whose commander, colonel Rahl, was slain. He then proceeded to Princeton, and on the 3d of January, 1777, defeated a party of British troops, who lost about 100 men; and forced about 300 to surrender, who had taken refuge in the College. In this action, general Mercer of Virginia was killed. These bold and decisive measures of Washington, revived the drooping spirits of the Americans, and surprised and confounded the enemy.

9. During the gloomy priod of the latter part of the year 1776, congress manifested the greatest firmness; they increased the power of Washington, investing him with supreme and unlimited command; took measures for raising an army for 3 years, or during the war; formed Articles of Confederation between the states; endeavored to rouse the people by an impressive address; and sent agents to Europe to solicit the

friendship and aid of foreign powers.

10.—(1777.)—In March, general Howe sent up the Hudson a detachment to destroy some stores at *Reekskill*; and in April, another detachment of 2,000 men, under general *Tryon*, proceeded to *Danbury*, in Connecticut, destroyed valuable stores collected there, and burnt the most of the town. During their return, there took place, between the British and the Connecticut militia, some skirmishes, in one of which, the

American commander, general Wooster, was killed.

11. On the opening of the campaign in the spring, the principal American army was increased to but little more than 7,000 men. General Howe, after having attempted in vain to provoke Washington to an engagement, retired from New Jersey to Staten Island; afterwards embarked with 16,000 men on board his ships; entered the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of navigation on Elk river. It being obviously his object to occupy *Philadelphia*, Washington put his army in motion, in order, if possible, to prevent it. On the 11th of September, a battle was fought on the Brandywine, in which the American forces, after a brave resistance, were obliged to yield to superior numbers and discipline, with the loss of about 1000 men in billed, wounded, and taken. Among the wound-

ed was the young Marques de Lafayette, who had recently entered as a volunteer in the American service, and had been appointed a major-general. The loss of the British was about 500 men.

12. Immediately after this battle, general Howe took possession of *Philadelphia*; and the principal part of his army was stationed at Germantown, seven miles from the city. It now became necessary for him to take the forts on the Delaware, in order to open a communication with the Atlantic. This was effected, after having cost the British a loss of three or four hundred men. While a detachment was absent to accomplish this purpose, Washington attacked the army at *Germantown*, on the 4th of October, but was repulsed, with a loss of about 1,200 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; while the loss of the enemy was only about half as great. After these transactions, the British army went into winter-quarters in Philadelphia.

13. During these inauspicious operations in the Middle States, important events were taking place in the north. Early in the spaing, it was determined in England to invade the states through Canada; and in June, a British army, amounting to 7,000 men, besides Canadians and Indians, commanded by general Burgoyne, passed up lake Champlain, and laid siege to Ticonderoga, which was abandoned by the Americans under general St. Clair. General Burgoyne proceeded to Skeensborough [now Whitehall], and destroyed the American flotilla and stores; and from the ce he led his army to Fort

Edward, on the Hudson.

14. While remaining here, he sent a detachment of 500 English troops and 100 Indians, under colonel Baum, to destroy a collection of stores at Bennington, in Vermont. On the 16th of August, general Stark, with about 800 Vermont and New Hampshire militia, killed and took prisoners the most of this detachment. The next day, a reinforcement of 500 Germans, under colonel Breyman, arrived, and was also defeated by general Stark. The loss of the British in these two engagements, was about 600. A few days before this battle, general Herkimer was defeated, on the Mohawk, by the British, under colonel St. Leger, with considerable loss.

15. General Burgoyne, having collected his forces and stores, crossed the Hudson, and encamped at Suratoga. General Gates, who had recently taken the chief command of the American army in the northern department, having concentrated his troops, advanced towards the enemy, and on

the 19th of September, an obstinate, but indecisive engagement took place at Stillwater, in which the Americans lost between 300 and 400, and the British about 600. The British army was soon after confined in a narrow pass; having the Hudson on one side, and impassable woods on the other; a body of Americans in the rear, and an enemy of 13,000 men in front.

16. In this exigency, Burgoyne resolved to ascertain whether it were possible to dislodge the Americans, and sent a body of 1,500 men to reconnoitre the left wing, when a second severe engagement took place, in which the British were worsted, and general Fraser was killed; and the American generals, Lincoln and Arnold, were wounded. Burgoyne, after having made ineffectual attempts to retreat, finding his provisions nearly exhausted, his troops worn down with incessant toil, and his situation becoming every hour more critical, called a council of war, in which it was unanimously resolved to capitulate; and on the 17th of October, the whole army, consisting of 5,752 men, exclusive of sick and wounded, surrendered, at Saratoga, as prisoners of war, to general Gates.

17. The surrender of Burgoyne excited the liveliest joy among the Americans, and inspired them with confidence with regard to their ultimate success in establishing their independence. In 1776, congress had sent Dr. Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur. Lee, commissioners to France, to solicit assistance; but though it was evident that the French court secretly wished success to the Americans, yet they would give no open countenance to their agents, till the news of the surrender of Burgoyne. That event decided the negotiation, and in February, 1778, treaties of alliance, and of amity and commerce, were signed at Paris. The news of this alliance was received with great joy in America.

18.—(1778.) The British ministry, after hearing of the fate of their corthern army, began to speak of American affairs with more moderation; and on receiving intelligence of the alliance between France and the United States, their fears were increased. In February, Lord North laid before parliament bills for conciliating America; and commissioners were appointed, who arrived in June, bringing terms of accommodation, which a few vears before might have effected the object. But the day of reconciliation was past; congress had now proceed the day of reconciliation was past; congress to ultimate success, to listen to any terms short of an acknowledgment of independence.

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19 At the opening of the campaign of 1778, general Hone went to England, and general Sir Henry Clinton succeeded him as commander-in-chief. It was now desermined by the British to concentrate their forces in the city of New York; and with this view the royal army left Philadelphia in June, and crossed the Delaware. General Washington, penetrating their design, attempted to interrupt their progress. The two armies met on the 28th of June, near Monmouth court-house, where a smart action took place, in which he Americans lost about 230, in killed and wounded, and the British about 400. This day was remarkable for excessive heat, which occasioned great suffering and many deaths in both armies. The British troops retreated, after the battle, to New York, and remained inactive during the summer.

*20. A French fleet of 12 ships of the line and 4 frigates, under the command of Count d'Estaign, arrived at the entrance of the Delaware in July and a plan was concerted to attack the British troops at Newport, but it proved unsuccessful. A short but obstinate engagement took place on Rhode Island, on the 29th of August, between the British under general Pullar and the Americans under general Sullivan, in which each lost upwards of 200 men. The next day, the Americans retreated from the island. At the close of the season, the French fleet, without having accomplished any thing of impostance, sailed to the West Indies.—In the autumn general Clinton sent an expedition to Georgia; and on the last of December, the British, after defeating the American force, took possession of Savannah.

21.—(1779.)—During the year 1779, the principal theatre of the war was changed from the north to the south. The operations, however, were not of any decisive consequence; though they gave rise to various expeditions, in which much valor and skill were displayed. The exertions of the Americans were enfeebled from the depreciation of their bills of credit, and from their not deriving the benefit which they had expected from the French fleet, which was unsuccessful in

all its enterprises.

22. Early in the season, Sir George Collier and general Matthews were sent from New York to Virginia, on a predatory expedition. They landed at Portsmouth, and destroyed the shipping and valuable stores in that vicinity, together with many houses. A similar expedition was afterwards sent against the maritime parts of Connecticut, under the command of general Tryon, who plundered New Haven, and burnt Fairfeld and Norwalk.

23. The British troops having taken and fortified Story Point, an eminence on the Hudson, an expedition, under the command of general Wayne, was sent, in July, to reduce it, which was conducted with great heroism, and the whole garrison surrendered. A similar expedition, under the command of general Lovell, was sent against a British post at Penobscot, but it was unsuccessful. General Sullivan, with a strong force, invaded the country of the Six Nations of Indians, destroyed 40 of their villages, with all their corn and fruit-trees, and returned with little loss.

24. During this year, general Lincoln held the chief command of the American army in the southern department. He sent a detachment of 1500 men to cross the Savannah, under the command of general Ash, who was surprised and defeated at Briar Creek, by general Prevost, with a loss of about 300 men, in killed and taken. This success emboldened general Prevost to make an attempt on Charleston, but it was unsuccessful. Count d'Estaign having arrived with his fleet from the West Indies, an attack was made on the British under the command of general Prevost, in Savannah, by a united force of French and Americans; but the were repulsed, with the loss of about 1,000 men, among whom as Count Pulaski, a Polish officer in the American service. The French fleet soon after departed from the American coast.

25.—(1780.)—In 1780, South Carolina value principal theatre of the war. Sir Henry Clinton, sailed from New York with a large force, and arrived at Savannah in January. Proceeding thence to Charleston, he laid siege to the city in April, and having prepared to storm it, general Lincoln was, on the 17th of May, compelled to capitulate. The garrison, consisting of about 2,500 men, together with all the adult male inhabitants, were surrendered as prisoners of war. General Clinton, leaving about 4,000 troops for the southern service, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, returned to New York. A proclamation was issued, inviting the Carolinians to the royal standard; several recruits were, in consequence, procured; but the great body of the people remained true to the cause of liberty and independence.

26. Charleston being now in the possession of the British, measures were taken to secure the obedience of the interior country. For this purpose, a considerable force was sent to Camden, under the command of Lord Rawdon. Several severe skirmishes took place between small parties, in one of which colonel Buford was defeated by a body of British

cavalry, under colonel Tarleton; in others, the American

general Sumpter distinguished himself.

27. General Gates, who had been appointed to the chief command of the southern army, in place of general Lincoln, arrived at the American camp, in South Carolina, in the latter part of July, and troops were collected in order to oppose the progress of the British. Lord Cornwallis, hearing of these movements, repaired to Camden, to reinforce lord Rawdon. On the 16th of August, a severe engagement took place between the two armies, in which the Americans were defeated, with the loss of 700 or 800 men, among whom was the Baron de Kalb, a Prussian in the American service, and the second officer in command. The British lost about half as many. The greater part of the American force consisted of militia, who fled at the first fire, and could not be rallied. General Gates, with the feeble remains of his army, retreated to Hillsborough, in North Carolina; and lord Cornwallis, for some time after the battle of Camden, remained inactive.

28. In July, *M. de Ternay*, with a French fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, besides frigates, and 6,000 land troops, commanded by *Count de Rochambeau*, arrived at Rhode Island. This gave new life to the American counsels and arms; but the fleet suddenly returned to France, and all hope of naval assistance vanished. The land forces, however, remained, and cooperated in the final reduction of the British

army.

29. The most flagrant instance of treachery during the war, occurred this year. This was the plot of general Benedict Arnold for delivering into the hands of the enemy the important fortress of West Point, on the Hudson. Arnold had distinguished himself at the siege of Quebec, and also at Sar atoga, where he was severely wounded. He was afterwards appointed to a command in Philadelphia, where his oppressive conduct had subjected him to a trial by a court martial, by which he was sentenced to be reprimanded. By these proccedings he was highly exasperated, and determined on levenge. General Washington still valued him for his bravery and former services, and, at his request, not suspecting his intentions, intrusted him with the command of West Point. He soon entered into a negotiation with general Clinton for the surrender of that post; but happily the plot was discovered in season to prevent the disastrous consequences which must have followed from its execution.

30. The unfortunate major Andre, the British agent in this 24

negotiation, being apprehended and convicted as a spy, his life was forfeited by the laws of war, and he was condemned and executed. The fate of this heroic and amiable young officer, was deeply regretted by the Americans, as well as by the English. Arnold escaped to the enemy, and received as a reward of his trea on an appointment to the office of brigadier-general in the British army.

31.—(1781.)—The operations of the war during the campaign of 1781, were chiefly in the south, and were of great importance. In January, *Arnold*, with about 1500 men, made a descent upon Virginia, and committed extensive depreda-

tions on the unprotected coast of that state.

32. In the autumn of 1780, general Greene was appointed to the chief command of the American southern army. The first action, after he assumed the command, was fought at the Cow-Pens, by the Americans under colonel Morgan, against the English under colonel Tarleton, who was defeated, with the loss of 300 killed, and 500 taken prisoners. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded, was only 72.

33. The two armies, under Greene and Cornwallis, met near Guildford court-house, in North Carolina, and on the 15th of March, a battle was fought, in which the British lost upwards of 400 men, yet they remained masters of the field. The loss of the Americans, who were mostly militia, was about equal. After this battle, general Greene marched to Candon, where Lord Rawdon was fortified with 900 men. The British commander sallied out and attacked him. The loss on each side was between 200 and 300 men; but the British had the advantage.—In September, general Greene obtained an important victory over the British under colonel Stuart, at the Eutaw Springs. The loss of the enemy in killed, wounded, and captured, amounted to about 1,000; that of the Americans to 550. This action nearly finished the war in South Carolina.

34. After the battle of Guildford, Lord Cornwallis proceeded towards Virginia, to join the British army under general Phillips; and arriving at Petersburg in May, he took the command of the united forces. After some predatory warfare, he encamped with his army on York river, at Yorktown and Gloucester Point, where he fortified himself in the best manner he was able.

35. A plan of combined operations against the British, had been previously concerted by generals Washington, Knox, Rochambeou, and other officers. The point of attack was not

absolutely determined on; but after lord Cornwallis had collected a large army in Virginia, Washington resolved to concentrate his forces against him. At the same time it was given out, that New York was to be the point of attack, in order to induce the Eastern and Middle States to exert themselves in furnishing supplies, as well as to deceive Sir Henry Clinton, and prevent him from sending reinforcements to Cornwallis. Washington wrote letters to general Greene and others, stating his intention to attack New York, and contrived that these letters should be intercepted by the British commander. The project was successful, and by a variety of military manœuvres, in which he completely out-generalled Clinton, he increased his apprehensions about New York, and prevented his sending assistance to Cornwallis.

36. Having, for a considerable time, kept Clinton in perpetual alarm in New York, Washington suddenly quitted his camp at White Plains, crossed the Hudson with his army, and passing rapidly through New Jersey and Pennsylvania, arrived at Elk river, the head-quarters of a considerable army under the *Marquis de Lafayette*. A part of the forces embarked and sailed for Virginia; the rest marched by land.

37. Clinton was not informed of the movements of Washington, till it was too late to pursue him. He then sent a strong detachment under the traitor Arnold, who had recently returned from Virginia, against New London in Connecticut. Fort Griswold, which stood on a hill in Groton, nearly opposite, was taken by a party of the British, and the most of its garrison, together with colonel Ledyard, the commander, were killed or wounded; and New London was afterwards set on fire and consumed.

38. At Chester, Washington heard the cheering news of the arrival of 24 French ships of the line under Count de Grasse, in the Chesapeake. Admiral Graves, with 19 British ships of the line, arrived soon after. The two fleets had a slight engagement, in which the French had the advantage, and were left masters of the navigation of the bay. A body of French troops was landed to cooperate with the Americans. The whole combined force, under Washington, closely in vesting the British army at Yorktown, including continentals, French, and militia, amounted to about 16,000.

39. The British army being blockaded by land and sea, the American forces opened the first batteries upon them early in October, with such effect as to silence a part of their artillery. Two British redoubts were taken. The second

parallel was begun on the night of the 11th; and such was the tremendous effect of the American artillery, that the British works were demolished, their guns silenced, and no hope of relief or escape remained. On the 17th of October, lord Cornwallis proposed a cessation of hostilities; and on the 19th, articles of capitulation were signed, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping, fell into the hands of general Washington. The whole number of prisoners, exclusive of seamen, amounted to 7,073; but many of them, at the time

of the surrender, were incapable of duty.

40. As the reduction of this division of the British forces was considered as deciding the war, and establishing the independence of the United States, the news was every where received with emotions of inexpressible joy. Divine service was performed in all the American brigades; and the commander-in-chief recommended that all who were not on duty should join in the worship, "with a serious deportment and that sensibility of heart, which the recollection of the surprising and particular interposition of Divine Providence in our favor claims." A day of public thanksgiving was recommended by congress, and observed throughout the United States; and general Washington liberated all persons under arrest,

that all might partake in the general joy.

41. As no rational expectation, on the part of the British, of conquering the United States, now remained, the military operations, which succeeded, were of little consequence. In March, 1782, lord North resigned his office as prime minister, and a new cabinet was formed, that advised the king to discontinue the further prosecution of the war. General Carleton was appointed to the command of the British forces in America; and on the 30th of November, provisional articles of peace were signed, by which the independence and sovereignty of the United States were acknowledged. On the 3d of September, 1783, there was concluded, at Versailles, by Adams, Franklin, Jay, and Laurens, on the part of the Americans, and Oswald, on the part of the British, a definitive treaty of peace, by which the thirteeen United Colonies were admitted to be "Free, Sovereign, and Independent States."

42. Thus ended the revolutionary war; a war which began in the injudicious and tyrannical endeavor to procure a revenue from the colonies, and which terminated in their freedom and sovereignty; a war which cost Great Britain, in addition to the loss of her colonies, the sum of about £100,000,000 sterling, and about 50,000 subjects; a war in which America

lost many lives and much treasure, and endured every hardship and suffering incident to so arduous a struggle, for which she was so ill prepared; a war, the issue of which will remain an encouragement to the oppressed to endeavor to rid themselves of oppression, and a lesson to those who, unmindful of the rights of the people, would lift against them the arm of power, and force them to a compliance with their unjust demands; a war, to use the language of Mr. Pitt (the younger), "which was conceived in injustice, nurtured in folly, and whose footsteps were marked with slaughter and devastation. The nation was drained of its best blood, and its vital resources, for which nothing was received in return, but a series of inefficient victories and of disgraceful defeats; victories obtained over men fighting in the holy cause of liberty, or defeats which filled the land with mourning, for the loss of dear and valuable relations, slain in a detested and impious quarrel."

SECTION V.

The Army disbanded: The Constitution formed: Washington's Administration: Adams's Administration.—From A. D. 1783 to 1801.

1. When the American army was to be disbanded, new and serious difficulties arose concerning the payment of the arrears of their wages and rations. The want of resources to carry on the war, and of supreme power to lay and collect taxes, had driven congress to the expedient of emitting vast sums in bills of credit, which depreciated so much as to be of scarcely any value; and, on account of the interruption of commerce, and the vast quantities of paper money which had been issued, gold and silver were, for a time, almost wholly banished from circulation. The depreciated currency, in which the troops were paid, deprived them of a great part of what was really their due; and neither officers nor soldiers could make a decent appearance in point of dress, while the families of many were suffering at home.

2. The officers of the army, reposing confidence in the faith of their country, remained quiet till the close of the war; but much agitation and alarm were, at length, excited among them, by the apprehension that they were to be disbanded without having a settlement of their accounts, or any provision

for the payment of what was due to them. In this state of feeling, that portion of the army that was stationed at *Newburg*, was thrown into alarming agitation by an address to the officers, privately circulated among them, appealing to their passions, and designed to stir them up to violent measures.

3. At this crisis, the virtues of Washington shone forth with peculiar and unrivalled lustre. He assembled the officers; exhorted them to moderation in demanding their arrears; promised to exert all his influence in their favor; and conjured them, "as they valued their honor, as they respected the rights of humanity, and as they regarded the military and national character of the American states, to express their utmost detestation of the men who were attempting to open the flood-gates of civil discord, and deluge their rising empire with blood."

4. These words, coming from one whom they had been accustomed to reverence, were weighty and decisive. After his speech, the officers voted him an address of thanks, and resolved that they continued to have an unshaken confidence in the justice of congress and their country. Congress had but little money, and no effectual means of raising it; but they put the accounts of the army in a train for settlement; and decreed, that the officers should receive, after the end of the war, five years' additional pay, and each soldier eighty

dollars besides his wages.

5. The 3d of November was fixed upon for disbanding the army: the day preceding, Washington issued his farewell orders to his troops, replete with friendly advice and affectionate wishes for their present and future welfare. Having afterwards taken an affecting leave of his officers, he repaired to Annapolis, where congress was then sitting, delivered to the president his military commission, and declared that he was no longer invested with any public character. After this declaration, retiring, followed by the gratitude of his country, and the applause and admiration of the world, to his estate at Mount Vernon, he addicted himself to the peaceful pursuits of agriculture.

6. At the close of the war, when the states were released from the presence of danger, the government, under the Articles of Confederation, was found to be weak, and wholly insufficient for the public exigencies. The authority of congress was reduced to a mere name; a large public debt had been contracted, but no provision had been made for paying either the principal or the interest. As congress had no revenue,

they could give no effectual value to their paper currency; and the public securities fell to a very small proportion of their nominal value, as it was regarded as extremely doubtful whether the government would ever be able to redeem them.

7. In this state of affairs, most of the army notes were sold for about a 6th or an 8th of their nominal value; so that the brave men who had fought the battles of their country, and endured hardships, cold, and hunger; and who had repeatedly received of congress solemn assurances of recompense for their toils and dangers, were at last forced to sell their securities for a mere trifle, in order to keep their families from distressing want.

8. The necessity of a more efficient general government was, at length, extensively felt; and in accordance with a proposition of the legislature of Virginia, commissioners from several of the states met, in 1786, at Annapolis, to form a general system of commercial regulations. But judging that their authority was too limited to accomplish any desirable purpose, they adjourned, with instructions to advise the states to appoint delegates with more ample powers, to meet the

next year at *Philadelphia*.

9. Accordingly, delegates from the different states assembled in that city, in May, 1787, and elected general *Washington*, who was a member of their body from Virginia, for their president. After four months' deliberation, the *Federal Constitution* was, on the 17th of September, unanimously agreed to by the members of the convention; and being presented to congress, it was, by that body, transmitted to the several states for their consideration. Being accepted and ratified, in 1788, by eleven members of the confederacy, it became the constitution of the United States. The two dissenting states were North Carolina and Rhode Island; the former adopted it in 1789; the latter in 1790.

10. According to the constitution, the several states elected their delegates to congress; and by a unanimous vote, Washington was chosen the first president. When the appointment was officially announced to him, although unwilling to leave his retirement, he yielded to the unanimous voice of his country; and bidding adieu to Mount Vernon, to private life, and to domestic felicity, he proceeded, without delay, to New York, where congress was assembled. In his progress to that caty, he was met by numerous bodies of people, who hailed him as the father of his country; triumphal arches were exected to commemorate his achievements; aged women

blessed him as he passed; and virgins, strewing flowers in his way, expressed their hope that he, who had defended the injured rights of their parents, would not refuse his protection to their children.

11. On the 30th of April, he was inaugurated president of the United States. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of the City Hall, in New York, where the oath was administered to him, in the presence of a countless multitude of spectators. The importance of the act, the novelty of the scene, the dignity of the general's character, the gravity of his manner, and the reverence with which he bowed to kiss the sacred volume, impressed upon the transaction a solemnity never before witnessed in America.

12. The joy of the nation at the establishment of the new government, with Washington at its head, was scarcely exceeded by that of any preceding event. His personal influence was such as to give the government a character both at home and abroad; and he possessed the inestimable talent of collecting the wisest counsellors, and of selecting the best opinions for the direction of his own conduct. At the same time that he was elected president, John Adams, who had borne a distinguished part in the revolution, was chosen vice-president. The other principal officers, at the first organization of the government, were Thomas Jefferson, secretary of state; Alexander Hamilton, secretary of the treasury; Henry Knox, secretary of war; Edmund Randolph, attorney-general; and John Jay, chief justice of the United States.

13. The beneficial effects of the new government, as administered by Washington and his assistants, were soon felt. Public confidence was restored; commerce revived; the national debt, incurred during the revolutionary war, was funded, and brought, at once, to its par value; and the United States suddenly rose from a state of embarrassment and de-

pression, to a high degree of national prosperity.

14. In 1790, the country was involved in a sanguinary war with the Indians to the north of the Ohio, who obtained a victory over general *Harmer*, and another in the following year (1791), over general *St. Clair*; but general *Wayne*, who succeeded to the command of the army, completely routed the savages, and negotiated a treaty of peace, in 1795, at

15. While the United States were engaged in war with the Indians, they were also involved in new difficulties by the convulsions of F trope. The French revolution had commen

ced, and that nation was under the wild misrule of the Directory. Claims were made on this country for assistance; the feelings of a large portion of the community were warmly enlisted on the side of France, and would have urged the nation into hostilities with England. But it was the policy of Washington's administration to remain neutral; yet this course of the government met with opposition, and increased the hostility of the two parties, into which the country had begun to be divided.

16. Washington, having been twice unanimously elected president, and having administered the government with great advantage to the country, near the close of his second term of four years, declined a reelection, in a valedictory address to the people, replete with maxims of political wisdom, and breathing sentiments of the warmest affection for his country. At the expiration of his term, he again withdrew to his residence at Mount Vernon, and was succeeded in office by John Adoms.

17. During Mr. Adams's administration, the French revolutionary government, disappointed in its object of engaging the United States in the war with England, pursued a course of insult and aggression towards them, which ended in open hostilities. The American government, at length, adopted measures of defence and retaliation; the navy was increased, and a provisional army was raised, of which general Washington was appointed commander-in-chief. A few months afterwards, the directory government of France was overthrown, and the disputes between that country and this were

amicably adjusted.

18. Not long after having accepted the command of the army, Washington died suddenly, at Mount Vernon, on the 14th of December, 1799, in the 68th year of his age. The news of the death of the great American general, statesman, and patriot, produced an impression that is without a parallel in America. The people of the United States, in accordance with the recommendation of congress, wore crape on the left arm, 30 days, as a token of spontaneous and unaffected grief; eulogies were delivered, and funeral processions celebrated throughout the country; thus exhibiting the affecting and sublime spectacle of a nation in mourning for the loss of one whom they had been accustomed to regard as the father of his country.

19. For several years, the nation had been much agitated by the conflicts of parties. At the time of the adoption of

the federal constitution, those in favor of it were styled federalists, and those against it, anti-federalists; but the two parties were afterwards generally designated by the names of federalists and democrats or republicans. These parties differed from each other, both with regard to the foreign relations of the country, and on various subjects of domestic policy. The federalists accused the republicans of an undue partiality for France; and the latter charged the former with a similar partiality for Great Britain. A commercial treaty with Great Britain, negotiated by Mr. Jay, in 1794, was severely censured by the republicans, and kindled the animosities of the parties.

20. Many of the measures of Mr. Adams's administration, relating both to foreign and domestic policy, met with much opposition. Some of the acts which excited the most dissatisfaction, were raising a standing army, imposing a direct tax, and enacting the "alien and sedition laws." In 1801, a revolution took place in the administration of public affairs; and the republican party, having become the majority, succeeded in elevating their candidate, Thomas Jefferson, to the presi-

deucy, in opposition to Mr. Adams.

SECTION VI.

Jefferson's Administration: Madison's Administration; War with Great Britain:—Monroe; Adams; Jackson.—From A. D. 1801 to 1830.

- 1. At the time when Mr. Jefferson was raised to the presidency, the state of the country was highly prosperous; and it so continued during the first term of his official career; near the end of which, he was reëlected by an almost unanimous vote. The war which had, for a number of years, been raging between Great Britain and France, had involved nearly all the nations of Europe. America endeavored to maintain a neutrality towards the belligerents, and peaceably to carry on a commerce with them. Being the great neutral trader, she had an interest in extending the privileges of neutrality, which the belligerents, on the contrary, were inclined to contract within the narrowest limits.
- 2. In May, 1806, the British government declared all the ports and rivers, from the Elbe in Germany to Brest in France,

to be blockaded, and all American vessels trading with those interdicted ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation. In the ensuing November, the emperor of France issued his Berlin Decree, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade, and prohibiting all intercourse with them. Next followed, in November, 1807, the British Orders in Council, by which all neutral vessels, trading with France, were compelled to stop at a British port, and pay a duty. In consequence of this measure, Bonaparte issued, in December, the Milan Decree, by which every vessel, which should submit to British search, or consent to any pecuniary exactions whatever, was confiscated.

- 3. In the same month [December], on the recommendation of Mr. Jefferson, congress laid an *embargo* on all the shipping of the United States; in March, 1809, the embargo was removed, and *non-intercourse* with France and Great Britain was substituted.
- 4. While matters continued in this state, new causes of provocation continually occurred. The trade of the United States was harassed by both of the belligerents; and the government was accused in Britain of partiality to France, and in France of pusillanimously submitting to the insults of Britain.
- 5. But one species of injury, which was keenly felt and loudly complained of in this country, the United States suffered exclusively from Britain. This was the impressment of her seamen on board the American vessels, by British menof-war. The similarity of language renders it difficult to distinguish American from British seamen; but there is reason to believe that, on some occasions, the British officers were not anxious to make the distinction; being determined, at all hazards, to procure men; and American seamen were compelled to serve in the British navy, and fight the battles of Britain.
- 6. The British, on the other hand, complained that their seamen escaped on board American vessels, to which they were encouraged, and where they were carefully concealed; and they contended for the right of searching American merchant vessels for their own run-away seamen. This custom had been long practised; was a fruitful source of irritation; and was submitted to, with extreme reluctance, on the part of the Americans, who maintained that, under British naval officers, it was often conducted in the most arbitrary manner, with little regard to the feelings of those against whom it was

enforced; and that, under the color of this search, native seamen were frequently dragged on board British vessels.

7. The custom of searching for British seamen had hitherto been confined to private vessels; but in 1807, it was ascertained that 4 seamen had deserted from the British service, and entered on board the *Chesapeake*, an American frigate, commanded by commodore *Barron*, and carrying 36 guns. Captain *Humphreys* of the *Leopard*, an English frigate of 50 guns, in compliance with the orders of admiral *Berkeley*, followed the Chesapeake beyond the Capes of Virginia, and after demanding the deserters, fired a broadside upon the American frigate, and killed and wounded about 20 men. The Chesapeake struck her colors, and the 4 seamen were given up.

8. This outrage occasioned a general indignation throughout the country; and was deemed, by many, in conjunction with other causes, a sufficient ground for declaring war. The president issued a proclamation, ordering all British vessels of war to quit the waters of the United States, and forbidding all intercourse between them and the inhabitants. The British government disavowed the attack on the Chesapeake; yet the measures taken with regard to the affair, were far from being

satisfactory to the government of this country.

9. In 1809, M. Jefferson, having declined a reelection, was succeeded by James Madison, who had been a leading man in the late administration, and who pursued the same general policy. At the commencement of the new administration, an arrangement was made with Mr. Erskine, the British minister, by which the American government was induced to renew the trade with England; but this arrangement was afterwards disavowed on the part of Britain. The succeeding negotiator, Mr. Jackson, having, soon after his arrival, used offensive language, the president declined having any further correspondence with him. An unhappy rencounter between the American and English ships of war, the President and the Little Belt, served to increase the unfriendly sentiments of the two countries.

10.—(1812.)—The prospect of an amicable adjustment of existing difficulties between the United States and Great Britain, continuing to become daily more dark and unpromising, congress met, pursuant to adjournment, on the 25th of May, 1812; and on the 1st of June, the president sent a message to that body, strongly recommending a declaration of war. The principal grounds for it, as stated in the message, were the impressment of American seamen by the British; the

blockading of the ports of their enemies; the orders in council; and a suspicion that the Indians had been instigated to

acts of hostility by British agents.

11. The bill for declaring war passed the house of representatives, by a vote of 79 to 49, and the senate, by one of 19 to 13; and on the 18th of June, the day after it passed the senate, it was signed by the president. Five days after the declaration of war, the British orders in council were repealed, in consequence of the decrees of Berlin and Milan having been revoked.

12. The minority of congress opposed the declaration of war, on the ground of its being, in their view, unnecessary and impolitic; they maintained also, that the aggressions of the French had been greater than those of the English; and they entered a solemn protest against the measure. A considerable proportion of the people of the United States sympathized, in their views, with this minority; and the war was, consequently, prosecuted with much less energy and success than it might have been, if there had been a unanimity in its favor.

13. Notwithstanding the length of time during which hostilities had been meditated, they were commenced in a very imperfect state of preparation on the part of the American government; and in consequence, the operations of the American armies, by land, during the first year, were wholly un-

successful and disastrous.

14. On the 12th of July, general Hull, with an army of upwards of 2,000 men, invaded Canada; and on the 16th of August, he surrendered, with the whole of his troops, to the British. A second attempt to invade the province, was made by general Van Rensselaer, who, with about 1,000 men, crossed the Niagara, in November, and attacked the British at Queenstown: after an obstinate engagement, he was obliged to surrender with his army. In this engagement the British general Brock was killed.

15. While the operations of the troops of the United States, in Canada, were so extremely unfortunate and mortifying, brilliant success attended the American flag on the ocean. In August, the frigate Constitution, commanded by captain Hull, captured the British frigate the Guerriere. In October, the frigate United States, commanded by captain Decatur, took the British frigate the Macedonian. In November, the British sloop the Frolic was captured by the sloop Wasp, under captain Jones; but the Wasp was immediately after taken by the Poictiers, a British seventy-four. In December,

the Constitution, commanded by captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate the Java. In these four engagements, the total loss of the British in killed and wounded, was 423; that

of the Americans only 73.

16.—(1813.)—The operations of the war during this year, were productive of alternate successes and reverses. In January, a detachment of about 800 men, under general Winchester, was surprised and defeated by the British and Indians under general Proctor, at Frenchtown, on the river Raisin. Those who had not fallen, amounting to about 500, surrendered prisoners, a great part of whom were inhumanly massacred by the Indians.

17. In April, a detachment of 1,700 American troops, under general Pike, after some severe fighting, took possession of York, in Upper Canada, and destroyed a large quantity of public stores. By the explosion of a mine, prepared for the purpose, general Pike, together with about 100 Americans, was killed. The British lost about 700 in killed, wounded, and captured.—Colonel Dudley, being detached from Fort Meigs, with 800 men, to attack the enemy's battery, was surrounded by a large army of Indians, under Tecumseh, and

was defeated, with the loss of most of his troops.

18. In May, an attack was made upon Sackett's Harbor by about 1,000 British troops under Sir George Prevost, who was repulsed with considerable loss, by the Americans under general Brown. Two days before this event, Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans under general Boyd and colonel Miller. The British, who were commanded by general Vincent, lost nearly 1,000 in killed, wounded, and captured. A few days afterwards, generals Chandler and Winder, who had advanced with a considerable force, were surprised in the night, not far from the fort, by the British, under general Vincent, and were both taken prisoners.

19. The most brilliant achievement, during this year, was the defeat of the British naval force on *Lake Erie*, in September, by commodore *Perry*. The British fleet consisted of 6 vessels, having 63 guns; that of the Americans of 9 vessels, with 56 guns. The conflict, which lasted 3 hours, was tremendous; but the victory was complete. The British force, being reduced to almost a total wreck, fell entirely into the hands of the Americans, who were, by this achievement, ren-

dered masters of the lake.

20. After this victory, general *Harrison* embarked his main army on board the American squadron, landed on the Cans-

dian shore, and in October, near the *Thomes*, defeated and dispersed the British army under general *Proctor*. In this action the enemy sustained a severe loss, and the celebrated Indian chief *Tecumseh* was killed. But the Americans were

afterwards repulsed at Williamsburg.

21. Great preparations had been made for the conquest of Canada, under generals Wilkinson and Hampton; but nothing of importance was effected; and a disagreement between the two generals prevented that concert which was necessary to insure success. The village of Ncwark, in Canada, being burnt by the Americans, the British crossed over, and, in retaliation, burnt Buffalo and some other villages. During this year, the British, under admiral Cockburn, committed various depredations in the south, and on the shores of the Chesapeake; but they were repulsed at Crancy island, near Norfolk.

22. The English were incre successful on the ocean, during this year, than during the preceding. The American flag, however, was not, in any instance, disgraced; nor were our ships and men found inferior to those of Britain of equal force. In February, the Hornet, commanded by captain Lawrence, captured the British sloop the Peaceck. In June, the Chesapeake, under captain Lawrence, was captured by the Shannon, commanded by captain Broke. In August, the Argus was captured by the English sloop the Pelican; and in September, the British brig the Boxer surrendered to the Enterprise.

23.—(1814.)—The campaign of 1814 was distinguished by more severe fighting in Canada, than had before occurred. On the 2d of July, the Americans, under general Brown, having taken Fort Erie, proceeded to attack the British under general Drummond, at Chippewa, where, on the 5th, an obstinate engagement took place, which terminated in favor of the Americans. On the 25th of the month, a more sanguinary and warmly-contested battle was fought, at Bridgewater, by the Americans, under generals Brown and Scott, and the British, under generals Drummond and Riall. The British were forced to retreat, with the loss of about 900 in killed, wounded. and taken. The American army was also so much weakened, that it fell back to Fort Erie, which the British afterwards attempted to storm, but they were repulsed with a severe loss. This was the last important operation of the war on this frontier.

24. Sir George Prevost, having received large reinforcements from the troops which had been employed under the Duke of Wellington, in Spain, now advanced with an army

of 14,000 men, to carry offensive war into the United States; and his first attempt was on Plattsburg. The operations of this army were accompanied by those of the British naval force on Lake Champlain, consisting of 95 guns and 1,050 men, commanded by commodore Downie. This force was totally defeated by the American fleet, having 86 guns and 826 men, under the command of commodore Macdonough. During the engagement between the fleets, Sir George Prevost attacked the forts of Plattsburg, but was effectually repulsed by the Americans, under general Macomb. The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and deserters, was estimated at 2,500; while that of the Americans, both on the land and water, was only 231.

25. In August, a British fleet of about 60 sail arrived in the Chesapeake, and an army of about 5,000 men, under general Ross, landed in the Patuzent, about 40 miles from the city of Washington. Having easily put to flight the American militia, under general Winder, at Bladensburg, the enemy entered Washington, burnt the capitol, the president's house, and other public buildings, and retired without molestation. In September, about a fortnight after this transaction, the British army, to the number of about 7,000, under general Ross and admiral Cockburn, made a similar attempt on Baltimore; but after gaining some advantages, they were finally repulsed

In this attempt general Ross was killed.

26. On the ocean, the American flag maintained its reputation, and in no instance yielded to an inferior or an equal force. The American frigate the Essex, however, was captured by the British frigate the Phabe and the sloop Cherub, of a superior force; and the frigate President, by a squadron of the enemy; but the British vessels of war the Epervier, Avon, Reindeer, Cyane, Levant, and Penguin, were taken by the Americans.

27. As the war between the United States and Great Britain was a branch of the great European quarrel, it naturally fell to the ground when that quarrel ceased. The matters in dispute between the two countries related to maritime and neutral rights; but with regard to these subjects, there was no longer any cause of difference, as the world was at peace. On the restoration of peace in Europe, both parties began to think seriously about ending the war; and the emperor of Russia offered his services as mediator, which were, however, declined by the British government, and a direct negotiation at Loudon

or Gottenburg was proposed. In April, 1813, commissioners, on the part of the United States, were appointed to meet others from England at Gottenburg: but the place of meeting was afterwards changed to *Ghent*, where a treaty was finally signed on the 24th of December, 1814.

28. While the negotiation was in progress, a large armament, under the command of Sir Edward Packenham, was fitted out by Great Britain, for an attack on New Orleans, with the intention, apparently, of ending the war with some eclat; but the design met with a most signal and fatal defeat. The British, after enduring great fatigues and numerous difficulties, and sustaining some desperate encounters, assaulted the works thrown up for the defence of the city, on the 8th of January, 1815, when they were dreadfully cut to pieces and repulsed by the Americans, under general Jackson. The loss of the enemy, in killed, wounded, and captured, amounted to about 2,600; among the slain were the commander-in-chief, general Packenham, and other principal officers. The loss of the Americans was only 7 killed, and 6 wounded.

29. This was the last important operation of the war; the joyful news of peace having happily put an end to further

hostilities.

30. In the treaty of Ghent, no allusion is made to the causes of the war, each party being left in possession of its real or imaginary rights. In case, therefore, that Great Britain should be engaged in another European war, the questions between the two countries, which are now set at rest by peace, might be again revived, and would, it is to be apprehended, lead to new difficulties.

31. But as it is evident that Great Britain and the United States, though they may harass and annoy each other, can never make such an impression as to compel a peace, it may be hoped they will be warned by experience to avoid useless wars; that they will exist hereafter, not for each other's annoyance, but for each other's benefit; and that their policy will be to avoid every cause of mischief and contention, and draw closer every tie, whether of consanguinity, religion, or interest, which can firmly unite them in a lasting peace.

32. Mr. Madison, after having filled the office of president of the United States during 8 years, was succeeded, in 1817, by James Monroe, whose administration was generally quiet and prosperous, and who was succeeded, in 1825, by John Quincy Adams.

5 *

33. After the restoration of peace, the country soon returned to its former prosperity: commerce revived; agriculture and manufactures became prosperous; the attention of the people has since been turned to various objects of internal improvement; education, literature, and the useful arts, have been fostered and promoted; and several new states have been added to the confederacy.

34. On the 4th of July, in 1826, while the people of the United States were engaged in celebrating the Fistieth Anniversary of our National Independence, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson expired; the former at his residence at Quincy, in Massachusetts, in his 91st year, and the latter at

Monticello, in Virginia, in his 84th year.

35. These distinguished men stood first and second on the committee of five appointed by congress to prepare the Declaration of Independence in 1776; and of this instrument Mr. Jefferson was the writer, and Mr. Adams the most powerful advocate. They afterwards held, in succession, the office of president of the United States, and were also at the head of the two opposite parties into which the country was long divided. After having retired from public life, they renewed and cultivated a friendly intercourse with each other, and finally passed out of the world together, on the Fiftieth Anniversary of the day which their Declaration had rendered illustrious as the era of American Independence.

36. In 1829, John Quincy Adams was succeeded in the office of president by Andrew Jackson, whose administration comprised 8 years, and who was succeeded, in 1837, by Martin Van Buren, who was elected by the same political

party, and continued in office 4 years.

37. Some of the principal matters by which the country was agitated, during these two administrations, were contests relating to the United States Bank, the gross mismanagement and ultimate downfall of the Bank, contentions and difficulties respecting the revenue and currency of the country, the repeated suspension of specie payments by most of the banks, and the general embarrassment of trade and commerce.

38. In 1841, Martin Van Buren was succeeded by William Henry Harrison, who died in one month after his inauguration; and he has been succeeded in the office of President, in accordance with a provision of the constitution, by John Tyler, who had been elected Vice President by the people.

[For a chronological view of the History of the United States and of American History generally, see the Chart of American History.]

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

SECTION I.

From the Birth of Christ to the year 325.

1. ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY is the history of the Church of Christ, or of Christianity, from its first promulgation to the present time. This period, embracing about 18 centuries, may

be distinguished into four great divisions.

2. The first division extends from the birth of Christ to A. D. 325, when, during the reign of Constantine the Great, Christianity became the religion of the Roman empire. Thus is the era of primitive Christianity, the professors of which, compared with those of the subsequent period, were distinguished for the simplicity of their doctrine, and the purity of their lives. During this period, Christianity was so far from being protected by the civil government, that it was subjected by it to the most cruel persecutions.

3. The second division comprises the period from the time of Constantine to the year 755, when the supremacy of the Pope was acknowledged, and his temporal dominion established. During this period, Christianity became corrupted by the infusion of a secular or worldly spirit among its professors; and also by incorporating with it the philosophy and supersti-

tions of paganism.

4. The third division extends from the commencement of the temporal dominion of the pope to the Reformation, which began in 1517. This period was the reign of ignorance, superstition, and ecclesiastical tyranny. The greater part of it is comprised in what is termed the Dark Ages, during which the lights, both of religion and knowledge, were almost extinguished

- 5 The fourth division includes the interval between the era of the Reformation and the present time. The progress of the Reformation has been accompanied by the revival of learning, and a variety of improvements in the state of society. During this period have appeared the various denominations into which the Protestants are now divided.
- 6. In the 753d year of Rome, and during the reign of Augustus Casar, our Savior, Jesus Christ, was born. The place of his nativity was Bethlehem, in Judea, and his reputed father was Joseph, a carpenter of Nazareth in Galilee. His birth took place at a time when Roman literature was in its zenith, and when the whole world was at peace. Before this event, Judea and most other parts of the then known world, had become subject or tributary to the Romans.

7. At the time of the advent of our Savior, an expectation extensively prevailed, that an extraordinary personage was about to appear in the world. The Jews, particularly, were expecting the coming of their *Messiah*, who, they imagined, would be a temporal prince, clothed with worldly splendor and power, and would deliver their nation from subjection to the

Romans.

8. The Jews, at this period, were divided into three sects, the *Phar isees Sad'ducees*, and *Es-senes'*. The *Essenes* were the *Therapeu'tæ* of Judea, a class of men who took no concern in political affairs, and professed to live in contemplative retirement, and to attempt to purify the soul by abstinence, silence, and other kinds of mortification.

9. The Sadducees were unbelievers in religion. They admitted, however, the authority of the books of Moses, but denied the sacred character of the other parts of the Old Testament, and rejected the doctrine of a future life, and the existence of angels and spirits. Many of them were learned,

rich, and powerful.

10. But the most popular and numerous of the three sects were the *Pharisees*, who presided in the schools, and were the chief doctors of the law. They received all the books of the Old Testament, and to these they added their traditions, or oral law, which they represented as of equal authority; yet many of the precepts contained in this oral law were in direct opposition, not only to the spirit, but also to the letter, of the decalogue. The Pharisees affected an appearance of great sanctity and devotion; yet, being destitute of the spirit of true religion, were chargeable with the grossest hypocrisy. They

looked for a Messiah who should be a mighty deliverer; who should rescue their nation from the dominion of the Romans, and subject the whole world to the institutions of Moses.

11. The manner of our Savior's appearance was, in opposition to the expectation of the Jews, the farthest possible from worldly authority and splendor. His reputed father was a carpenter; he was laid in a manger at his birth; he led a life of labor and suffering; endured the scoffs and reproaches of the world; and at last suffered an ignominious death upon the cross. He plain'y declared that his kingdom was not of this world, and chose for his disciples, men from the humblest walks of life. These were styled apostles, and were commissioned to propagate the new religion. They were endued with the power of working miracles, and were furnished with the gift of tongues, by which they were enabled to preach the gospel to all nations in their respective languages.

12. The first missionaries of the faith proceeded, in good earnest, in the great work of christianizing the world. Their success varied according to circumstances; but in general they met with great opposition, and were frequently exposed to the severest persecution. The Jews, having rejected and crucified our Savior, were little inclined to listen to the instructions of his disciples, or receive his religion; but among

time Gentiles, the apostles met with wonderful success.

13. The rapidity, with which Christianity was propagated among the Gentiles, will appear extraordinary, when we consider that the founder of it belonged to a hated nation, and had suffered a public and ignominious death; that the apostles and evangelists were poor men, destitute of power and influence, and, except in the case of St. Paul, had no pretensions to learning; that the religion which they preached, held out no promise of temporal good, no worldly pleasures, riches, honor, or power; but on the contrary, often exposed its professors to the loss of all of them; that it had to contend, not only with the false religions and popular superstitions of the age, but also with the prejudices, passions, and vices of the world.

14. This rapid success, under such circumstances, can be accounted for only upon the supposition that the apostles were endowed with miraculous gifts. They healed the sick; they raised the dead to life; and they preached to every nation that they visited, in its own language, the glad tidings of salvation, supporting and comforting their converts amidst the severest sufferings to which they were exposed.

15. The evidences of their commission were multiplied on every side; and the temples of idolatry began speedily to be forsaken. Churches were soon established in almost every part of the Roman empire; in the provinces of Asia Minor and in Ethiopia; at Cor'inth, at Philip'pi, at Thessaloni'ca, and in the capital city of Rome. In a short time, nations and cities more remote heard of the gospel. The Gauls received the knowledge of Christianity from the immediate successors of the apostles; and during the second century, the Germans, the Spaniards, and the Britons, were added to the multitudes in other parts, who made open profession of the Christian faith.

16. The Christians were, however, subjected, by the Roman government, to the severest persecution. Most of the apostles, and many of their immediate successors, obtained the crown of martyrdom. Ten persecutions are usually enumerated as having taken place under the emperors; but this number is not very accurate; for there were not so many that were general throughout the empire, but still more, if all that raged in particular provinces are included. The first general persecution took place under the emperor Nero, who, having set fire to the city of Rome, and reduced a great part of it to ashes, charged the guilt of this transaction upon the Christians, and inflicted upon them the severest sufferings. In this persecu-

tion, St. Paul suffered martyrdom.

17. Even the emperor Trajan, who is described as a mild and excellent sovereign, is to be numbered among the cruel persecutors of the professors of the new religion. During his reign, the younger Pliny was governor of Bithynia; and in a letter to the emperor, he thus states what had been his practice with regard to the disciples of Christ. "This has been my method," says he, "with regard to those who were brought before me as Christians: I asked them if they were Christians, and if they pleaded guilty, I interrogated them twice afresh, with a menace of capital punishment. In case of obstinate perseverance, I ordered them to be executed. For of this I had no doubt, whatever was the nature of their religion, that a sullen and inflexible obstinacy called for the vengeance of the magistrate." Such, under the reign even of the mild Trajan, was the extraordinary proceeding of the philosophic Pliny, a man whose character for benevolence and justice is one of the most unexceptionable that pagan antiquity can furnish!

18. The testimony given by the same distinguished person, in his letter to the emperor, to the simplicity and purity of the

Christian manners, is worthy of notice. "This," says Pliny, "is their account of the religion which they professed, whether it deserves the name of a crime or an error, namely, that on a stated day they were accustomed to assemble before sunrise, and to repeat among themselves a hymn to Christ as a God, and to bind themselves by an oath not to commit any wickedness, but on the contrary, to abstain from theft, robberies, and adulteries; not to violate their promise, or deny a pledge; after which it is their custom to separate, and then meet again, sitting down to a harnless meal, of which all are invited to partake."

19. There is scarcely any variety of suffering which the followers of Christ were not doomed to undergo. Neither age nor sex was spared. They were crucified; they were impaled; they were thrown to wild beasts; they were publicly whipped till their bones and sinews appeared; they had their flesh torn off with pincers; they were consumed by a slow fire; and they suffered death in various other modes equally appalling and dreadful. The genius of man was exhausted in the invention of tortures; and to a hasty observer, it might seem that the time was approaching, when Christianity, subdued and worn out with sufferings, would disappear from among men.

20. This conclusion, however, would be the reverse of the truth. The Christians multiplied in a most extraordinary manner. Persecution not only united them more closely together, but it inflamed their zeal, and quickened their activity. The constancy with which they endured the most cruel sufferings, produced an impression in favor of the religion by which they were supported and animated. Their opinions became general; a great majority of the people embraced and avowed them; till at length, in the year 325, during the reign of Constantine, the religion of Jesus became the religion of the Roman empire.

21. From that time, Christianity was not only tolerated but protected and cherished. The number of edifices consecrated to the worship of God, was increased; and the emperor himself was not ashamed to be seen engaged in the exercises of religion.

SECTION II.

From A. D. 325 to 755.

1. Christianity, being now supported by the Roman government, whose influence was felt throughout almost all the civilized world, experienced a degree of worldly prosperity before unknown; but the spirit of the religion immediately declined. The clergy became infected with secular ambition, and were no longer distinguished for that purity and disinterestedness, which characterized the apostles and their immediate successors. Christianity became corrupted, also, by a mixture both of the philosophy and the superstitions of paganism; and the church was divided into a variety of sects.

2. Some heresies, as those of the Gnostics and Cerinthians, date their origin as early as the apostolic age. A variety of others appeared in subsequent periods: but the most memorable division of the church, in its early ages, was that which

related to Arianism.

3. Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, was contemporary with Constantine, and had for his principal antagonist, Athana'sius The controversy, to which his opinions gave rise, attracted the notice of the emperor, who, in order to determine the Catholic doctrine on the subject in dispute, assembled the famous Council of Nice, in 325. It was composed, according to some accounts, of no less than 2,000 ecclesiastics, of whom 318 were bishops. The opinions of Arius were condemned, and the Nicene creed was published as the orthodox faith.

4. Arianism, however, was not suppressed, but continued to have many patrons and supporters; and the controversy long divided and afflicted the church. Constantius, the son and successor of Constantine, and several of the subsequent emperors, favored the Arians; and the opinions of the Christian world too often fluctuated in compliance with the sentiments of its masters. Each party, in turn, labored to establish its

victory, by unjustifiable proceedings against the other.

5. Many hurtful follies were introduced, through erroneous views of what constituted the Christian life. Instead of making it consist in personal purity, and in the practice of piety to God and benevolence to man, it was conceived to consist in various austerities and absurd modes of mortification. The more rigid abstained from the most innocent gratifications. They rejected marriage, abstracted themselves from the world, and passed their lives in solitude, penance, and prayer.

6. Simon Stylites, a famous anchoret of the 5th century, became the founder of the Pillar Saints. He is said to have passed 37 years of his life on the top of a column, beginning with one of 6 cubits in height, and ending with one of 40: thus attracting the admiration of the multitude.

7. The origin of monastic life is placed in Egypt, in the

middle of the 3d century. In subsequent ages, convents, both of monks and nuns, abounded throughout Christendom. These institutions, in early times, contained many persons of austere virtue and piety; but they became, generally, far more noted for their vices than their devotion.

8. The order, established in the primitive church, was exceedingly simple. The care of each congregation was intrusted to its pastor or bishop, together with a certain number of assistants. Out of this primeval simplicity, the papacy gradually arose. The bishop of Rome, the metropolis of the empire, easily obtained, not only a precedence over all his brethren of other cities, but some degree of jurisdiction over such of them as were stationed within his reach.

9. His authority gradually increased; and in order to strengthen it further, it was pretended that St. Peter was the founder of the see of Rome, and, therefore, that the bishops of the metropolis were the successors of that apostle; yet it is a disputed point, whether St. Peter ever visited the Roman capital. In the latter part of the 4th century, the bishop of Rome openly declared himself head of the universal church: and from that time the appellation of Pope has been appropriated to him. His claim, however, to the rank of universal bishop, was disputed in different parts, and particularly by the Patriarch of Constantinople. This circumstance led to the separation of the Eastern or Greek Church, which, after a long controversy, took place about the middle of the 11th century.

10. In 755, the pope was raised to the rank of a temporal prince, by Pepin, king of France, who conferred on him the exarchate of Ravenna. Since that period, the pretended successor of the poor and humble fisherman Peter, has united in

his person the highest offices of king and priest.

11. In a succeeding age, he laid claim to infallibility, and in the plenitude of his power, dispensed pardons for sin, and disposed of crowns and governments at his pleasure. It was the favorite maxim of Rome, that the pope was, by divine right, the supreme lord of the world, and the fountain of all authority, ecclesiastical and civil.

SECTION III.

From A D. 755 to 1517.

- 1. This period may be justly denominated the period of darkness. Christianity seems to have become nearly obliterated, and imposture, fanaticism, and superstition, are dignified with its name. The lights of learning and science are likewise almost extinguished: the human mind appears debased and bewildered in the universal darkness; and nothing seems too irrational or absurd for the ignorance and credulity of the times.
- 2. Among the most prominent objects which arrest the attention, during these dark ages, are the monastic institutions, or convents of monks and nuns; relics, pilgrimages, crusades, and canonizations; the doctrines of indulgences, transubstan tiation, and purgatory; the bulls and interdicts of the popes, and the senseless wranglings of the schools.
- 3. In the beginning of the 9th century, the passion for collecting relics of the saints reached an extraordinary height; many persons, some of whom were in eminent stations, travelled into Judea for the purpose of obtaining them. The bodies of the apostles and first martyrs are said to have been dug up, and great quantities of bones and other relics were brought into Italy, and sold at enormous prices. Numerous impositions were practised in this traffic; the purchasers seem not always to have been very nice or scrupulous in their inquiries; and many a devotee wept over the spine of a dog or a jackall, supposing all the while he had before him the relic of an apostle.
- 4. Monastic institutions kept pace with the passion for relics. The madness spread throughout Christendom; and even kings and great lords, unmindful of their true dignity, as well as their duty to society, sought, in these abodes, an asylum from the cares and temptations of the world. Monastic life had its origin, probably, in sincere, though mistaken piety. Its rules were originally strict, but they fell gradually into disuse. The monasteries daily increased in wealth, by donations from the rich, who were in the habit, just before their death, of bestowing their property on these institutions, imagining that by this means they should secure the forgiveness of their sins. They were magnificent and commodious, and appeared more like the palaces of princes, richly stored with luxuries, than as the retreats of penitence and mortification.

- 5. The monasteries, however, performed an important service to literature, and for ages they were the abodes of what little learning remained in the Christian world. The monks were not so universally illiterate as the secular clergy, as they had more opportunities for study, and fewer for dissipation. But the most important service which the monasteries performed, was by being secure repositories of books. By their means some sparks of ancient learning survived the long winter: in them almost all the manuscripts of remoter ages, which have reached us, were preserved. In this manner, to use the language of Hallam, "religion made a bridge, as it were, across the chaos, and has linked the two periods of ancient and modern civilization."
- 6. Some account of the Crusades and of Chivalry, which form prominent features in the history and state of society during this period, and which were intimately connected with the religion or superstition of the times, has already been given in a preceding part of this volume. In these ages, particularly in the 10th and 11th centuries, the passion for pilgrimage was carried to an extravagant height. This passion, and that for relics, have doubtless a foundation in human nature; but in these times of superstition, they were carried to a most ridiculous and pernicious excess.
- 7. In the 10th century, an opinion, founded on a passage in the Revelation, prevailed throughout Christendom, that the end of the world and the day of judgment were approaching. In consequence of this impression, prodigious numbers abandoned their connections, gave up all their possessions to the monasteries and churches, and repaired to the Holy Land, where they imagined that Jesus Christ was about to descend from heaven to judge the world. The church gained, at this period a great increase of wealth; almost every donation made to it, during this century, affords evidence of the prevalence of this opinion, the donor commonly assigning his reason in the following words; "As the world is now drawing near its close." Such was the general panic, that an eclipse of the sun or moon occasioned the greatest terror and dismay; cities were, in consequence, deserted by the miserable inhabitants, who fled for refuge to caverns and other places of concealment.
- 8. During this period, many absurd doctrines were introduced into the church. About the beginning of the 13th century, was established the doctrine of transubstantiation, according to which the bread and wine used in the sacrament of the supper, are changed into the real flesh and blood of Jesus Christ.

9. The origin of the doctrine of purgatory, or a state of temporary punishment after death, is placed at an earlier date Prayers and masses were offered up for the souls that had passed into this preparatory state; all the saints in heaven were supplicated, in order to shorten or mitigate the punishment; rich gifts were bestowed upon the church by the surviving friends of those for whom the benefit was sought; and the dying transgressor readily parted with his possessions to secure it.

10. The doctrines of absolution and indulgences, like that of purgatory, were fruitful sources of wealth to the clergy; as they were likewise of vice and a general corruption of manners among all classes, by establishing a claim to the happiness of heaven, without the cultivation of personal virtue. Indulgences were sold by the authority of the pope for money; and a person who had purchased a plenary indulgence, might trans-

gress, with impunity, any command of the decalogue.

11. The influence of the pope, in this period, was far greater than that of any other potentate in Christendom; he claimed an authority over kings and kingdoms, and assumed the magnificent title of Master of the world. If a sovereign offended him, his whole kingdom was liable to be laid under an interdict, during which the churches were shut up, and the celebration of divine worship was suspended; no sacrament, except baptism and extreme unction, was administered; and the dead were buried in the highways, without funeral rites. In this way the penalty fell upon those who had neither partaken of the offence, nor had power to prevent it.

12. In the 11th century, during the pontificate of pope Gregory VII. [Hildebrand], the dominion of the church attained its zenith. This haughty pontiff assumed supreme authority, not only in spiritual, but in temporal affairs, and regarded the sovereigns of Europe as his vassals. He excom municated and deposed Henry IV., emperor of Germany compelled him to appear before him as a penitent sinner, and to submit to a most severe and humiliating penance, by passing three days in the open air, during winter, with his feet and head bare, at the papal threshold, waiting for absolution. The celibacy of the clergy, which had been before attempted, Gregory rigidly enforced, with a view of separating them, as far as possible, from all other interests, and bringing them into a total dependence on the holy see.

13. The secular clergy, who had the care of parishes, and whose business it was to instruct the people, were destitute of

every qualification for their sacred office, having neither carning nor morals. They seldom preached, for, in some periods, not one in a hundred could either read or write. In the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, the sacred scriptures were little known, and many bishops had never seen a copy of them

during their lives.

14. The public discourses of those who undertook to preach, treated scarcely at all of any topic of Christianity; but were made up of legends, or absurd stories relating to the lives and exploits of the saints. By degrees, all public instruction was given up; and it was generally held, that to repeat a few forms in rapid succession, to undertake pilgrimages, to observe the holydays, and to pay tithes and perquisites to the clergy, constituted the sum of religious duty, and formed the principal excellence of the Christian character.

15. In these dark and miserable times, learning was as much corrupted and obscured as religion. The little which existed, was chiefly employed about the lives and miracles of the saints, and other subjects of no interest or utility. The questions which commanded the principal attention in the schools, were of the most trifling and preposterous character; and the discussions were specimens of elaborate folly. The most celebrated controversy among the schoolmen, was that between the Realists and Nominalists, which engaged the attention of the metaphysical champions of the times, and which was carried on by the use of the sword, as well as of the pen.

SECTION IV.

The Reformation, beginning in 1517.

1. The Reformation is the most important event that has taken place in the religious world, since the first promulgation of Christianity. Various circumstances prepared the way for the introduction of this great revolution. The Waldenses in Piedmont, and the Albigenses in the south of France, had long borne testimony against the corruptions of the church of Rome.

2. Various persons, in different parts of Europe, had formed more enlightened and scriptural views of religion, than were generally prevalent; and by their instructions and writings, had produced a considerable influence. Among these, John

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Wickliffe, of England, who flourished in the 14th century. holds a distinguished rank. He attacked, with great boldness and with powerful effect, the prevailing corruptions, translated the Scriptures into English, and left numerous followers, who were styled Wickliffites or Lollards.

3. In the beginning of the 15th century, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, imbibing sentiments similar to those of Wickliffe, made a similar stand against the errors and corruptions of the times. Their followers, in Bohemia, were numerous; and under their renowned leader Zisca, they took up arms in defence of their religion.

4. The revival of learning had begun now to show itself in the principal countries of Europe. The human mind was awaking from the long sleep of ages; and the invention of the art of printing was of signal service in creating and gratifying the desire of knowledge, and in giving diffusion to new doc-

trines.

5. In the year 1517, Tetzel, an agent of pope Leo X., began to publish indulgences in Germany, and offer them for The pontiff, a man of pleasure and ambition, had exhausted the papal treasury by his profuse munificence, and took this method to replenish it. A complete remission of sins, whether past, present, or future, was promised to all who would pay the stipulated sum. The offence excited by pub lishing this doctrine, was heightened by the shameless impu dence of the manner in which it was proclaimed by Tetzel and his associates, and by the gross immorality of their lives.

6. The man who has the honor of having made an effectual stand against this iniquitous traffic, was Martin Luther, a professor of divinity in the university of Wittenberg, in Saxony. Luther was eminently fitted for the important part which he was called upon to act, by his extraordinary and varied talents. his unconquerable zeal, and his undaunted courage. declaimed against indulgences with all the power of his eloquence, and exposed, with vehement indignation, both from

the pulpit and by the press, the vices of the monks.

7. Leo and his agents, alarmed by the tidings of Luther's rapid success, proceeded against him wholly in the way of despotic authority. The reformer was summoned to appear at Augsburg, before cardinal Cajetan, who, without deigning to attempt to convince him of his error, commanded him to recant; and propounded to him, for his belief, the following dogma: "That one drop of Christ's blood being sufficient to redeem the whole human race, the remaining quantity, which was shed in the garden and upon the cross, was left as a legacy to the church, to be a treasure, from whence indulgences can

be drawn and administered by the Roman pontiff."

8. Luther refused to retract his opinions, till he should be convinced that they were erroneous. At length, in 1520, the pope issued a bull, denouncing destruction against him, as an excommunicated heretic, unless he should, within 60 days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his own books.

9. This famous bull, so fatal to the papal interests, had no other effect upon the mind of the reformer, than that of exciting him to keener and more systematic opposition. Amidst a vast assemblage of people, in the town of Wittenberg, he threw the papal bull, together with the volumes of the canon law, into the flames, renounced the authority of the pope, exhorted the princes of Europe to shake off the oppressive yoke which they had so long borne, and offered thanks to Almighty God that he was selected as the advocate of true religion, and a friend to the liberties of mankind.

10. Nor was the voice of the reformer lifted up in vain. The new opinions found friends in almost every country in In Switzerland, Zuinglius attacked indulgences with a courage not inferior to that of Luther himself. Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony, and several other princes

of Germany, favored the Reformation.

11. In a diet held at Worms, it was resolved that every recular prince should manage the ecclesiastical affairs of his dominions, as he himself should judge most proper, till the meeting of a general council. But at a subsequent diet, this resolution was reversed; and against its reversal, the elector of Saxony and other princes who favored the Reformation, entered their solemn protest. From this circumstance, the name of Protestants had its origin; a name since applied to all the sects that have withdrawn, upon whatever account, from the church of Rome.

12. The sacred scriptures were translated by Luther into the German language, and read with astonishing avidity. The learned and mild Melancthon, who had assisted Luther in the translation, drew up the celebrated Confession of Faith, which was presented in behalf of the Protestants at the diet of Augs burg, in 1530.

13. The Reformation soon extended to Sweden and Denmark; and it was firmly established in the city of Geneva, and the Swiss cantons, by the celebrated Calvin. It found friends also in France, the Netherlands, Spain, Italy, Hungary, and Bohemia. To crown the whole, Henry VIII. of England, having quarrelled with the pope, on account of his divorce, renounced the papal authority, and by means of the prudent management of Crammer, the reformed doctrines were, at length, effectually established in that kingdom. Scotland also was soon emancipated from the papal superstition and tyranny, by the unwearied labors of the intrepid and zealous Knoz.

14. The Reformers were singularly qualified for the important services which they performed. They were not, it is true, free from the faults and prejudices of the age in which they lived; yet they were men of great talents and great virtues; and with the friends of religion, literature, and liberty, their names are deservedly associated with sentiments of gratitude and veneration.

15. The enemies of the Reformation were numerous and powerful. The greater part of the sovereigns of Europe, from considerations either of principle or policy, continued

to be attached to the ancient system.

16. Since this great schism in the religious world, the influence of the court of Rome in Christendom, has been greatly diminished. The Roman Catholic church has also, in most countries where it is established, become more enlightened than it was previous to the Reformation; but inasmuch as it inculcates implicit faith in its own infallibility, and discountenances the general circulation of the Bible, and the free perusal of it by the laity, it is much less favorable to the dissemination of knowledge, more especially religious knowledge, than is Protestantism, which maintains the sufficiency of the Scriptures, and the right of private judgment. It will, accordingly, be found that, in Protestant countries, the common people are much better informed than in Catholic countries.

[[]For a chronological view of some of the principal events in Ecclesiastical History, see page 338.]

CHRONOLOGY.

Chronology is a science which treats of the natural and artificial divisions of time; and it refers to certain points or

eras the various events recorded in history.

Various eras have been adopted in different ages, and by different nations, in the computation of time, and in adjusting the dates of events recorded in history. Some of the most important only of these eras can be here mentioned.

- 1. THE OLYMPIADS. The Greeks computed their time by the era of the Olympiads, which date from the year 776 B. C.; heing the year in which Corobus was successful at the Olympic games. I'his era differed from all others, in being reckoned by periods of four years, instead of single years. Each period of four years was called an Olympiad, and in marking a date, the year and the Olympiad were both mentioned.
- 2. THE FOUNDATION OF ROME. The Romans reckoned their time from the date assigned for the founding of Rome, corresponding to the year 753 B. C. This era is designated by the letters A. U. C., or ab urbe conditâ, "from the building of the city."
- 3. THE CHRISTIAN ERA. The Christian era, which is used by Christian nations, is reckoned from the birth of Christ, which, according to the Hebrew text of the Old Testament, took place A. M. [in the year of the world] 4004; according to the Samaritan text, A. M. 4700; and according to the Septuagint, A. M. 5872. The computation according to the Hebrew text is followed in this work; and it is generally adopted in English literature. The birth of Christ is supposed to have taken place about four years earlier than the period assigned to it in the vulgar era.



The computation by the Christian era first began to be used in the 6th century. The Roman or Julian year was followed, consisting of 365 days and 6 hours, which exceeded the true time of the solar year by a little more than 11 minutes. This erroneous computation had, in the year 1582, occasioned a deviation of 10 days from the true time; and in that year (1582) pope Gregory introduced a reform into the calendar, by taking 10 days from the month of October. The calendar thus reformed (called New Style) was immediately introduced into all Catholic countries. The reckoning according to the Julian year (called Old Style) continued to be used in England till the year 1752, when 11 days were omitted in September, the day after the 2d being accounted the 14th.—The Greeks and Russians still use the Old Style.

- 4. The Era of the Hegira, which, dates from the flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, is used by Mahometan nations, and corresponds to the 16th of July, A. D. 622.
- 5. THE AMERICAN ERA. The era most used in this country, next to the Christian era, is that of the Declaration of the Independence of the United States, which took place on the 4th of July, 1776.

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT ERAS.

	Year.
The Era of the Olympiads corresponds to	3228 of the Creation of the World. 23 before the Foundation of 776 before Christ. [Rome. 1398 before the Hegira.
The Foundation of Rome corresponds to	3251 of the Creation of the World. 4 of the 6th Olympiad. 753 before Christ. 1375 before the Hegira.
The Christian Era corresponds to	4004 of the Creation of the World 1 of the 195th Olympiad. 753 of the Foundation of Rome 622 before the Hegira.
The Hegira corresponds to	4626 of the Creation of the World. 3 of the 348th Olympiad. 1375 of the Foundation of Rome. 622 of the Christian Era.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

In the following table the most important epochs are given, together with a system of Artificial Memory, to facilitate the recollecting of dates. This system is derived chiefly from Dr. Grey's Memoria Technica.

In order to facilitate remembering dates, a word is formed of the *name* recorded, or of the first syllables of it, together with one or more syllables added to it, and made up of *numeral letters*. For this purpose, a vowel and a consonant are assigned to each digit, and a or b denote 1; e or d 2; i or t 3; o or f 4; and so on, in the following series:

a	6	i	. 0	24	au	oi	00	ou	ai
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
b	ď	ŧ	f	ซ	8	D	k	72	z

These letters may easily be remembered by considering that the first five vowels represent 1, 2, 3, 4, 5,; that the diphthong au, which is composed of a 1 and u 5, denotes 6; that oi, for the same reason, denotes 7, oo, 8, and ou, 9. The diphthong ai is put for the cipher 0, but without any similar reason.

The first consonant, b, denotes 1; d, the first letter of duo, the Latin for two, denotes 2; t, the initial of the word three, is put for 3; f, for the same reason, for 4; v (V being the Roman numeral for five) denotes 5; s, the initial of six, is put for 6; p, from septem, the Latin for seven, denotes 7; k, from the Greek okto, eight, is put for 8; n, the initial of the word nine, denotes 9; and z, the final letter, is put for 0.

Having perfectly learned the foregoing series, the student may proceed to exercise himself in the formation and resolution of dates, in the following manner:

The system may be extended at pleasure; and by the formation of words in the manner described, it will be easy to fix in the mind the time of the death of illustrious men, the commencement of the reigns of kings, and other events, of which it is desirable to remember the date. It will be easy to remember whether the event took place before or after Christ.—Besides the series of letters already explained, g may denote a hundred, and th a thousand.

TABLE.

4004	Crretion of the world	. Cre-faizo
2348	Deluge	Del-etok
22 47	Creation of the world Delage Bobel built; mankind dispersed	. Bab <i>-edop</i>
2188	The kingdom of Egypt commences	Egypt-clook
1921	Calling of Abraham	. Abrah-anab
1556	Athens founded by Cecrops	Ath-aves
1403	Cudmus brings letters into Greece and builds Thobas	Cadming Land
1491	Israelites brought out of Egypt by Moses	Israel-bona
1263	Argonautic expedition	Argonaut-best
1184	Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks	Troy-bako
1075	Stand king of Israel	Saul- <i>azpu</i>
1012	The Temple of Solomon founded	Templ-azad
884	Lycurgus reforms the laws of Lacedemon	Lycurg-ooko
776	The first Olympiad begins	Olym <i>-pois</i>
53 6	Cyrus founds the Persian empire	Cyru-ris
509	Tarquin expelled from Rome	Tarquin-eain
490	Battle of Marathon	Marath-onz
400	Socrates put to death	Socrat-ozai
324	Alexander the Great dies at Babylon	Alexand-ido
312	The era of the Seleucidæ	Scleucid-ibe
146	Greece reduced to a Roman province	Greece-bos
31	Battle of Actium; end of Roman commonwealth	Actium-ta
	Birth of Christ; 4 years before the vulgar era.	
70	Jerusalem taken and destroyed	Jerusal-oiz
98	Trajan emperor of Rome	Trajan-noo
306	Constantine emperor of Rome	Constan-tais
476	End of the Western Roman empire Era of the Hegira, or Flight of Mahomet	Rom-fois
622	Era of the Hegira, or Flight of Mahomet	Hegira-sed
800	Charlemagne emperor of the West	Charlemag-oout
827	Charlemagne emperor of the West	England-kep
1066	William the Conqueror king of England	Will-baisau
1096	First Crusade to the Holy Land	Crusad-azous
1227	Genghis-khan's conquests in Asia	Genghis-bedoi
	End of the Caliphate or Saracen empire	
1340	Gunpowder invented at Cologne, by Schwartz	Gunpowder-atos
1370	Wickliffe propagates his doctrines in England	Wickliff-atoiz
1398	Timur Bek or Tamerlane's conquests	Timur-bink
1440	The art of Printing invented	Print-afoz
1453	Eastern Empire ends; Turks take Constantinople	Turks-afat
1492	America discovered by Columbus The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther	America-bone
1517	The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther	Reform-avap
1603	Union of England and Scotland under James I	Jam-asait
1620	Plymouth, Mass., settled by the Puritans	Plymouth-banes
1688	Revolution in Britain	Revolut-asook
1776	Independence of the United States declared	Independen-apoli
1789	French Revolution	Revolut-apoon
1804	Bonaparte crowned emperor of France	Bonapart-boose
E15	Rattle of Waterloo	WaterLubbe .

CHART OF HISTORY

DESCRIPTION AND ILLUSTRATION.

1. This Chart affords means of facilitating the study of History, similar to what are afforded by maps in the study of Geography. It supposes time to be flowing, in a stream, from the left hand to the right; and represents, at one view, the principal states and empires which have existed in the world,

together with their origin, revolutions, decline, and fall.

2. Those who may make use of this Chart, are supposed to be conversant with the common principles of Geography, and to understand the relative situation and importance of the different countries which are represented. It will be readily seen, that the spaces which represent the several countries on the Chart, do not give any exact idea of the extent of those countries, but of the revolutions which they have undergone, and, in some degree, of their comparative importance in history. Those parts of the world which are almost unknown in history (as for example, all Africa except Egypt and the Barbary states), are not represented at all on the Chart.

3. In the arrangement of the countries, the geographical order is generally followed. It unavoidably happens, that, owing to conquests, and other acquisitions, the several parts of an empire or state, cannot always be placed in a contiguous position. To remedy this inconvenience, recourse has been had to coloring the different parts of the same empire with the same color, by means of which the eye can embrace, at one view, the various territories, of which it was, at any given period, composed. The colors fit for this purpose are so few, that a repetition of some of them has been necessary; but they are applied in such a manner as not to be likely to mislead the student.

4. The scale of the main body of the Chart, comprises a period of 2,700 years; namely, from the year B. C. 800, to the end of the 19th century. This interval is divided into 27 equal parts, by perpendicular lines, extending from the top to the bottom, each space between the lines denoting the period of

100 years.

5. To the left hand of that portion of the Chart appropriated to America, are represented the principal states that flourished in remote antiquity, from the time of the Deluge to the year 800 before the Christian Era.

6. The several countries of which the history is delineated, are represented by spaces included between horizontal lines.

The siant lines denote the gradual conquest of a country; as, for example, the conquest of the Britons by the Romans was com-

menced A. D. 43, but not completed till 84.

7. In order to ascertain the date of any event or revolution in the history represented on the Chart, add the figures at the line denoting the event, to the next century, if before Christ, on the ru ht hand, and if after Christ, on the left hand, and the sum will

give the date before or after Christ, as the case may be. 8. Thus it appears that Egypt dates from 2188 B. C.; the Calleng of Abraham 1921; the foundation of Rome 753 B. C.; that Macedonia was annexed to the Roman Empire 168 B. C.; that the Heruli conquered Italy, and put an end to the Western Roman Empire, in the year 476 after Christ; and that the Turks put an end to the Eastern Empire, in 1453.

9. By carrying the eye horizontally upon the Chart, from the left hand to the right, one may see the succession of states and empires; their rise, progress, and fall; of what states they were

composed, and what states rose from their ruins.

10. By carrying the eye vertically on the Chart, from the top to the bottom, one may see what states and empires were flourishing at any given era. At the period of 500 years B. C., it will be seen that the *Persian Empire* was much the most considerable then existing; that it had swallowed up the Babylonian empire, and various other couptries in Asia; and also Egypt: that the Grecian States existed separate and independent; that the republic of Rome was of very small extent; and that the nations of the middle and north of Europe were unconquered and independent.

11. At the period of A. D. 100, it will be seen that the Roman Empire embraced almost all the then known world; that the Britons had been recently subdued, but that the Irish, Scots, and the northern nations of Europe, and also the Parthians, Arabs, Hindoos, and Chinese (nations then little known), were

not conquered.

12. At the period of A. D. 800, it will be seen that the three principal empires were those of the Saracens and the Franks, and the Eastern or Greek Empire; that the Western Empire of the Romans had been for upwards of three centuries extinct: and that the kingdom of the Lombards had been recently terminated; that England was under the government of the Saxon Heptarchy; that Wales, Scotland, and Ireland were independent, and the northern kingdoms not yet formed; that the temporal dominion of the Pope had commenced; that the Saracens were in possession of the greater part of Spain, the whole of Arabia and Persia, a great part of the Eastern, or Greek Empire, all Egypt and Barbary.

13. At the period of A. D. 1300, it appears that the three kingdoms of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were separate and undependent; that a large part of the country which now forms the Russian Empire, was in the possession of the Moguls; that Poland was an independent kingdom, but that Lithuania was separate; that England was in possession of Wales and Ireland, but not of Scotland; that Bohemia and Hungary were independent; that a considerable portion of France belonged to England; that Lorraine, Alsace, and Burgundy were independent of France; that Italy and Spain comprised various states, the latter being partly in possession of the Moors; that Portugal had become an independent kingdom; that the Eastern Empire was still in existence; that the Moguls were in possession of Persa, a part of the Eastern or Greek Empire (modern Turkey), and China, as well as a part of Russia; that the kingdom of Jerusalem had fallen into the possession of the Mamelukes; and that the Mamelukes also possessed Egypt.

14. At the period of 1800, it appears that Denmark was in possession of Norway, which was soon after annexed to Sweden; that the kingdom of Poland had been dismembered between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, all of which had now become important sovereignties; that Holland, the Netherlands, and a great part of Raly, had been recently annexed to France, but were soon after again separated from it; that Naples had become an independent kingdom; that the Turks were in possession of a great part of the countries most celebrated in ancient history; that the Wahabees had got possession of a great part of Arabia, and the English of Hindostan; that the English possessed Canada; that the United States had become independent of England; that the Spanish provinces in America belonged still to Spain, and Brazil to Portugal, but that soon afterwards they all became independent.

15. The figures on the left hand of the American states denote the time of the conquest or settlement of each; those on the right hand, the time when each became independent. Thus it appears that Virginia was settled by the English in 1607, and New England in 1620; that the United States became independent in 1776; that Mexico was conquered by the Spaniards in 1521, and became

independent in 1821.

16. The four great empires of antiquity, as may be seen by the Chart, were the Assyrian or Babylonian, the Persian, the Macsdonian, and the Roman.

17. The Assyrvan or Babylonian Empire was the most ancient, and was succeeded, in 536, by the Persian Empire, which was swallowed up, 330 B.C., by the Macedonian Empire. This latter empire, which, in its extensive form, was of short duration, was dissolved 301 B.C.

18. The Roman Empire was much the most powerful empire of antiquity, and from about half a century before Christ, to the latter part of the 5th century after Christ, when the Western Empire was conquered by the Heruli, embraced the greater part of the then known world.

19. The Heruli were supplanted by the Ostrogoths, that is, Eastern Goths; the latter by the Greeks; and these by the Lombards, who retained possession of Italy till 774, when they were conquered by the Franks, whose empire, during several centuries, was the most formidable in Europe. In 843, it was divided into three monarchies, France, Germany, and Italy.

20. After the fall of the Western Empire of the Romans, the Franks, Goths, Vandals, Huns, Lombards, and other barbarous

nations, obtained possession of the principal part of Europe.

21. The empire of the Saracens commenced before the middle of the 7th century, and continued through that and the 8th and the 9th centuries, flourishing and powerful; but was at length broken into various parts, and in 1258, the Caliphate of Bagdas terminated.

22. The empire of the Moguls was widely extended, in the early part of the 13th century, under the mighty conqueror Genghis-Khan; and in the latter part of the 14th century, Timur Bek,

or Tamerlane, a Tartar, ran a similar career of conquest.

23. By the Chart, it appears that, before the Christian era, England was inhabited by the Britons, who were conquered by the Romans in the first century after Christ, and continued subject till 410; that the Saxon Heptarchy was commenced in 455, completed in 585, and continued till 827, when England became one kingdom under Saxon monarchs; that the Danes were possessed of the kingdom from 1013 to 1041; that the Saxons then regained possession, and held it till 1066, when they were conquered by the Normans, under William the Conqueror; that Ireland was annexed to England in 1172, Wales in 1283, and Scotland in 1603; and that England held possessions in France from 1066 to 1558.

The changes of other states and kingdoms, delineated on the Chart, will be easily understood.

Questions on the *CHART OF HISTORY.

1. What are some of the states and empires that flourished from the Deluge to 800 B. C.? 2. How long before Christ was the Deluge?

3. When was Babel built?

4. From what period does Babylon date? 5. Egypt? 6. Sicyon in Greece? 7. What other cities in Greece were founded before 1400 B. C.? 8. What is the date of the Argonsutic Expedition?

9. What is the period of Lycurgus? 10. When did the kingdom of Troy end? 11. What is the date of the Calling of Abraham?

12. When were the Israelites in Egypt? 13. When did they enter

Canuan? 14. When were they first governed by a king?

15. When was the kingdom divided into the Ten Tribes of Israel and

16. When was Israel incorporated with the Assyrian Empire?

^{*} Note. By the Chart it appears, that Babylon was founded 2227 B. C.: Sicyon 2089 B. C.: Argos 1856 B. C., &c.

17. When was Judak added to the Babylonian Empire?
18. When was Phanicia annexed to the Babylonian Empire?

19. When did the Babylonian Empire end? 20. What empire sue-

ceeded it? 21. When did the Persian Empire begin and end?
22. By what empire was it succeeded? 23. When was Egypt conquered by the Persians? 24. When by the Macedonians?

25. When were Athens, Sparta, Thebes, &c. annexed to the Macedo-

nian Empire? 26. When was the Macedonian Empire dissolved?
27. When was the kingdom. of Macedonia annexed to the Roman Empire? 28. When did the Ptolemies govern Egypt?

29. When did the Seleucidæ govern Syria? 30. When did the Ptolemies govern Judea? 31. When the Maccabees?

32. What is the date of the foundation of Rome?

33. What is the date of the commencement of the Republic?

34. What were some of the nations first conquered by the Romans? 35. When were the Cisalpine Gauls conquered? 36. Macedonia? 37. Greece or the Achaan League? 3d. The Carthaginiums? 39. The Gauls? 40. The Helvetii? 41. Syria? 42. Judeu? 43. Egypt? 44. The Britons?

45. During what centuries was the Roman Empire most extensive?

46. When did the Roman dominion over the Britons end?

47. When did the Suevi obtain possession of Spain?
48. When did the Her'uli conquer Italy?

49. When did the empire of the Franks begin?
50. During what centuries was it most extensive?
51. When did the kingdom of the Lombords in Italy begin and end?

52. In what century did the Saracen Empire commence?

53. In what three centuries was it most flourishing?

54. What are the modern names of the countries which it embraced '
55. When did the Caliphate of Bagdad terminate?
56. When did the Greek Empire of Nice terminate?

57. In what century was the Eastern or Greek Empire governed by French Emperors? 58. When did the Eastern or Greek Empire end 59 By whom was it conquered?

Modern Part.

1. In what centuries was the empire of the Moguls most flourishing?

2. When were the Tartars in possession of Persia, &c.?

3. Who anciently inhabited Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Russia?

4. When were Sweden, Norway, and Denmark all united together 5. With what country was Norway connected from 1448 to 1814?

6. In what centuries did the Moguls or Tartars possess a part of Russia?

7. When was Poland divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia?

8. Who were the ancient inhabitants of England?

9. In what centuries were the Romans in possession of Britain?

10. In what centuries did the Saxon Heptarchy exist?

11. When did the Saxon Heptarchy end, and the singdom under the Saxon monarchs begin? 12. When did the Danes obtain possession of England? 13. When the Normans?

14. When was Ireland added to England? 15. Wales? 16. Scotland?

17. In what centuries did England hold possessions in France? 27 *

18. When was Bohemia annexed to the house of Austria? When Hungary?

20. When was the empire of the Franks divided into the three sove-

reignties of Germany, France, and Italy?

21. When did the empire of Germany end?

22. When did the republic of Holland begin and end?
23. What nation held possessions in France from 1066 to 1558?
24. What countries were annexed to France a little before 1800?
25. When did the republic of Switzerland commence?

26. In what centuries did Naples belong to Spain?

27. When did Naples become independent?
28. When did the dominion of the Moors in Spain cease?

29. How many centuries has Spain been united in one kingdom?

30. When did the kingdom of Portugal commence?

31. During a part of what centuries was it united with Spain?

32 When did the empire of the Turks commence?

33. How many centuries have their dominions been as extensive as at present?

34. When did the Sophis or Shahs get the possession of all Persia?

35. What different people have been in possession of Persia, since the downfall of the ancient Persian empire?

- the downian of the ancient Persian empire?

 36. When did the dominion of the Wahabees in Arabia commence?

 37. When did the English dominion in India begin?

 38. When did the Mantchew Tarturs gain possession of China?

 39. What different nations have possessed Egypt since 800 B. C.?

 40. When did the Turks get possession of Egypt?

 41. What nation first settled Canada?

 42. When did the English gain possession of Canada?

 43. When and by whom was Virginia settled? 44. New York?

 45. New England? 46. Pennsylvania?

47. When did the United States become independent?
48. Which country on the continent of America was first settled by Europeans? 49. When was Mexico conquered by the Spaniards? 50. What other countries were soon after colonized by the Span

iards? 51. By whom was Brazil colonized?
52. Which of the countries in South America first became inde

pendent? 53. What others soon followed?

54. How long did Spain possess Mexico?

SACRED HISTORY.

HE historical parts of the Bible treat chiefly of the history of the Israelites or Jews. The other principal source of information, in addition to the Scriptures, relating to the ancient history of the Israelites, is to be found in the writings of Josephus, a Jewish historian, who lived in the time of the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans.

They were descended from Abraham, who was called, 427 years after the Deluge, and 1921 B. C., to separate himself "from his kindred and his father's house" [See Genesis xii], and who received a promise that

the Messiah should be of his posterity.

They were called Hebrews, as is commonly supposed, from Eber or Heber, an ancestor of Abraham; Israelites, from Jacob, who was surnamed Israel; and Jews, from Judah, one of the twelve sons of Jacob,

the head or patriarch of the principal of the Twelve Tribes.

Jacob with his sons and their families, consisting of 70 persons, migrated from Canaan to Egypt, 1706 B. C., and their posterity were, in that country, reduced to slavery. After a residence of 215 years, they were liberated from Egyptian bondage by Moses, the great Hebrew Lawgiver.

After wandering 40 years in the wilderness, they took possession of

Canaan, under the direction of Joshua.

From the entrance into Canaan to the commencement of the reign of Saul, a period of 356 years, they were governed by a succession of Judges.—A view of the succession of the Kings of Israel and Judah, during the continuance of the monarchies, is given in the Tables I. and on the following pages.

The most flourishing period of the Israelitish monarchy was during

the reigns of David and Solomon.

The sceptre of Judah descended regularly, except during the usurpation of Athaliah, from futher to son, in the family of David, till the death of Josiah, three of whose sons were, for a short time, raised to the throne.

During nearly all the period of the Old Testament history of the Israelites, the nation manifested a strong tendency to forsake the worship of the true God, and to fall into idolatry. Many of the kings of Judah, and all the kings of the Ten Tribes, were promoters of idolatrous worship.

The history of the Ten Tribes, subsequent to their captivity by Shalmaneser, is buried in utter obscurity. The Jens, or subjects of the kingdom of Judah, after the 70 years' Babylonish captivity, returned, by permission of Cyrus, under Zerubbabel their governor, and rebuilt Jerusalem and the Temple.

After this period, they were subject successively to the Persians, the Ptolemies of Egypt, the Syrians, and the Maccabees, till 63 B. C., when they were subjected to the Romans by Pompey. A. D. 70 Jerusalem was taken and destroyed by the Romans under Titus, and since that event, the Jews have been dispersed in all parts of the world.

B. C	70	T	THE KINGDOMS OF ISRABL AND JUDAE	
1100		7		Prophets.
55	5 Saul 5 David 8 Solomon	4	is engaged in war with the Philistines Analekites, &c. persecutes David who is anointed by Samuel in his stead; Saul and Jonathan slain by the Philistines. The son of Jesse, of the tribe of Judah, is first proclaimed king of Judah, afterwards of all Israel; makes Jerusalem the seat of his kingdom; subdues the Philistines, Edomites, Amalekites, Moabites, &c. Celebrated for wisdom; has a pacific and prosperous reign; builds the Temple. After the death of Solomon, ten Tribes	Nathan . Gad
1000			revolt from his son Rehoboam, and two separate kingdoms are formed, Judah and Israel. Km. or JUDAH:—19 Kings:—387 Years.	
1000		۱.,	!	
	Rehoboam		Revolt of the Ten Tribes.	Iddo
	Abijah Asa	41	Gains a great victory over Jeroboam. A religious king; suppresses idolatry; has a prosperous reign.	Shemaiah Azariah
14 900	Jehoshaphat	25	A religious king; a prosperous reign; joins Ahab in a war against Syria.	Micaiah Elijah
	Jehoram	14	An idolater; slays his 6 brothers.	
85	Ahaziah		Is slain by Jehu.	Elisha
84	(Athaliah)		Usurps; slays all the royal family.	
7 8	Joash (or		Jehoash) defeated by the Syrians.	Jehoiada
3 9	Amaziah	29	Defeats the Edomites; is defeated by	Zachariah
	Uzziah	52	Joash; is slain in a conspiracy. Defeats the Philistines and Arabians;	
800		_	is smitten with leprosy.	Amos
	Jotham		Has a prosperous reign	Oded
	Ahaz	16		Hosea
	Hezekiah	28	An excellent king; has a prosperous	
700	1	-		Nahum
98	Manasseh	55	An impious king; is carried by Esar-	
42	Amon	۱ ۵		Joel
	Josiah	31	An idolatrous king; is murdered. An excellent king; great reform: slain.	Zenhenie-L
09	Jehoahaz (or	ľi	Shallum): is carried captive into Egypt.	Habakkıık
09	Jehoiakim (or	11	Shallum); is carried captive into Egypt. Eliakim); is carried in chains to Baby-	
600			lon.	
	Jehoiachin (or	7	Jeconiah); is carried to Babylon.	Obadiah
	Zedekiah	1Ĩ	The king and the nation carried cap-	Jeremiah
			tive to Babylon. The city and tem- ple destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, 588 B. C. The captivity lasted 70 years, from 606	Daniel Haggai
		_ [B. C. to 1st year of Cyrus, 536 B. C.	

TABLE	II.—The	Kingdom	0F	ISRAEL, OR	THE	TEN	TRIBES :
	•	19 Kin	gs :	—254 Years			

C.		Kinge.	Reight.	
JU	75	Jeroboam 1.	21	Son of Nebat, becomes king of the Ten Tribes; resides first at Scheckem, afterwards at Tirzah; institutes the worship of Golden Calves, one at Bethel and another at Dan, and seduces the
		37 3 3		people to idolatry; overcome by Abijah.
		Nadab	1	Son of Jeroboam; slain by Baasha.
1		Baasha	24	Usurps the throne, and destroys all the family of Jeroboam; at war with Asa.
		Elah	1	Son of Baasha; is slain by Zimri.
1		Zimri		Usurps the throne; destroys the race of Baasha; and, after a reign of 7 days, is overcome by Omri.
		Omri	12	Founds Samaria, and makes it the capital.
00	18	Ahab	21	Son of Omri; notorious for implety, as well as his queen Jezebel; seizes the vineyard of Naboth; wars against Ramoth Gilead; is slain.
יטע	97	Ahaziah	1	Son of Ahab; wounded by a fall, and dies.
		Jehoram	12	Samaria besieged by Benhadad, king of Syria; the inhabitants in great distress.
	84	Jehu	28	Destroys Jesebel and all the family of Ahab, and the priests of Baal, but maintains the worship of Jeroboam's golden calves.
	56	Jehoahaz	17	Oppressed by Hazael, king of Syria.
		Joash	14	Jehoash, defeats Benhadad II. king of Syria; also Amaziah; takes Jerusalem.
DO	26	Jeroboam II.	41	A warlike sovereign ; has a prosperous reign.
				After this reign, the kingdom hastens to its downfall; and its subsequent history is replete with treasen, disorder, and misrule. An Interregnum of 11 years.
	73	Zechariah	4	Is slain by Shallum, who usurps the throne.
-	73	Shallum	-	After a reign of one month is killed by Menahem.
	63	Menahem	10	Becomes tributary to Pul, king of Assyria.
		Pekaiah	2	Is murdered by Pekah, one of his captains.
		Pekah	20	Unites with Rezin, king of Syria, and besieges Jerusalem; defeats Ahaz; is overthrown by Tiglathpileser, who carries a part of the Isra- elites to Syria: slain by Hoshea.
	39	Hoshea.	18	Becomes tributary to Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, but applies to So, king of Egypt, and revolts. Shalmaneser besieges, takes, and demolishes Samaria, carries the Israelites captive into Assyria and Media, and puts an end to the kingdom, B. C. 721.

The subsequent history of the *Ten Tribes* is buried in obscurity. The runtry was afterwards repeopled by colonies from Assyria, whose descendits adopted the Law of Moses as contained in the Pentateuch, which they garded as the only inspired book; and they were called *Samaritans* from a chief city of the country. The Samaritans built a temple on *Mount crizim*. They were always at variance with the Jews, by whom they were spaced and hated as heretics.

B. C.	TABLE III.—GRECIAN HISTORY.
500	76 First Olympiad begins.
7/h k	ob Cherops, the first Decennial Archon in Athens.
מחיי	43 First Messenian War; ends 724, and Ithome taken.
w	55 Second Messenian War;—ends 671, the Messenians subdued.
th P	54 Creon, the first Annual Archon in Athens.
	24 Druce forms his bloody code of laws for Athens.
	Solar Eclipses first calculated by Thales.
UU	Solon forms a new code of laws for Athens.
- 1	62 Comedy and Tragedy first exhibited in Athens.
Į.	60 Pisistratus tyrant of Athens; a splendid rule.
- 1	60 Temples first built in Greece.
th	Literature encouraged: Homer's poems collected into a vol-
I	ume.
	24 Hippias and Hipparchus, the Pisistratide, govern Athens.
1	14 Hipparchus slain; and (510) Hippias expelled.
00	90 PERSIAN WAR.—Victory gained by Miltiudes at Marathon.
ı	80 Conflict of Leonidas at Thermopyla.
- 1	80 Victory gained by Themistocics at Salamis.
- 1	79 Victories of the Greeks at <i>Platæa (Aristides)</i> and <i>Mucals</i> .
Į	70 Victory gained by Cimon on the Eurymedon.
th	64 Third Messenian War begins.
<i></i>	45 Herodotus reads his History at the Olympic games.
ı	31 PELOPONNESIAN WAR begins.—430. Plague at Athens.
- 1	5 Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.
- 1	3 The Thirty Tyrants expelled .— Philosophy and the Arts.
	Xenophon's Retreat with the 10,000. Death of Socrates.
00	94 Agesilaus defeats the Athenians, Thebans, &c., at Coronea.
ı	87 Peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.
	71 Epaminondas of Thebes defeats the Spartans at Leuctra.
	63 Epuminondas defeats the Spartans at Mantinea.
	56 First Sacred War.—348. Philip takes Olynthus.
th	39 Second Sacred War.—348. Phi/ip's victory at Charonea.
- 1	34 ALEXANDER invades Persia; his victory on the Granicus.
l	33 Battle of Issus.—332. Tyre taken, and Egypt conquered.
- 1	30 Battle of Arbela; Persia conquered.—224. Alexander dies.
- 1	1 Battle of Irsus; Alexander's empire divided.
no	OR Athons tuken by Demotring Policesotes
	98 Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.
- 1	81 The Achaen League begins; also Ætolian League.
- 1	80 Greece ravaged by the Gauls under Brennus.
d	73 Pyrrhus, having ravaged Greece, is killed at Argos. 64 The Arundelian Marbles composed.
	25 Cleamenes reforms the government of Sparta.
	20 War between the Achaens, under Aratus, and the Etolians. 6 The Achaens, under Philopamen, defeat the Etolians.
non!	o The Montanto, under I hadpanen, deleta the Montant.
w	97 Battle of Cynocephale; the Macedonians defeated by the Ro-
	mans.
Ì	68 Battle of Pydna; the Macedonians defeated by the Romans,
d	and Macedonia reduced to a Roman province.
	47 The Achaens defeated by the Romans under Metellus.
- 1	
	46 Corinth taken by the Romans under Mummius, and GREECE reduced to a Roman province under the name of Achais.

	TABLE	IV.—Chronoi	ogy or Gree	CIAN LITERAT	URE.
LC.	Statesmen and Warriors.	Philosophers.	Poets and Artists.	Historians and Orators.	Contemporary Bovereigns.
100	Aristomenes		Tyrtæus		Numa
th	Draco		Archilochus Terpander		Josiah Cyaxares
00	D				
	Periander Solon	Chilo, Bias	Alcœus		Nebuchad-
	Zaleucus	Pittacus Cleobulus	Sappho Æsop, Fab.		nezzar Serv. Tullius
.,	Pisistratus	THALES	Epimenides		Craesus
th	Hippias	Anacharsis	Stesichorus		Cyrus
- 1	Hipparchus	Anaximander			Tarquin, Pr.
	Harmodius	Xenophanes	Thespis		Cambyses
00	Aristogiton	Anaximenes	Susarion		i
w	Miltiades	PYTHAGORAS	Anacreon		Darius
	Leonidas	Heraclitus	Simonides		Xerxes
	Aristides	Melissus	Æschylus		
	Pausanias	Zeno	PINDAR		Hiero
	Themistocles		Phidias, Art.		Artaxerxes L
h	Cimon	Anaxagoras	Cratinus		n i
	Pericles	Diagoras	Eupolis		Dionysius
	Nicias Alcibiades	Meton	Polygnotus A. Parrhasius A.		
	Critias	Protagoras Cebes	Euripides	HERODOTUS	Ī
	Ivandor	SOCRATES		Georgias, Or.	
00	Thrasybulus Conon				
	Conon	Euclid, Meg. Phædo	Aristophanes	Thucydides	
	Pelopidas	Antisthenes	Zeuxis, Art. Euphranor,	Lysias, Or. Ctesias	
	Epaminondas		Art.	Хенорнон	Artaxerxes
	Agesilans	Hippocrates	Timotheus	Isocrates, Or.	
h	Timoleon	Democritus	Lysippus, A.	Theopompus	
	Parmenio	PLATO	Apelles, Art.	Hyperides, O.	
	Perdiccas	Diogenes	• '	DEMOSTHE-	
	Phocion	ARISTOTLE		_NES, Or.	
	Polysperchon			Æschines,	1
0	Antigonus	Euclid, Alex.	Praxiteles, A.	Or.	
~	Demetrius	Theophrastus			Lysimachus
	Antigonus G.	Epicurus	Theocritus	`	Cassander
!	Antigonus D.		Lycophron	Timeous	Seleucus I.
	Cleomenes	Apollonius	Aratus	Manetho	Ptolemy I.
	Aratus	Arcesilaus	Callimachus		Pyrrhus
0	,	Archimedes	Apollonius		Ptolemy II.
-	DL 11	Eratosthenes	n.		Antiochus, G.
	Philopæmen	Heraclides	Bion	Polybi	Eumenes
	Lycortas	Carneades	Moschus	Polybius Apollodorus	Antiochus, E. Judas Mac.
ю		Hipparchus	Nicander		
į		D.4	A 1	Diodorus Sic.	
0		Potamo	Archias	Dionysius H.	Julius Cesar
į		D:	,	Gamba Gara	Augustus
0		Dioscorides		Strabo, Geog.	
		Epictetus	Lucian, Dial.	Plutarch, Bio.	Trajan
ĩ		Galen, Med.	,	Arrian	Adrian

REMARKS AND QUESTIONS.

Questions on Table I.

How long did the kingdom of Israel continue? The kingdom of Judala? What is said of Saul and his reign? David? Solomon? &c. How many years did Saul reign? David? &c.

What prophets flourished between 1100 and 1000 B. C.? Between 1000 and 900? &c.

Questions on Table II.

What is said of Jeroboam and his reign? Nadah? &c.

How long did the kingdom of Israel continue? When and by whom were the people carried into captivity? What afterwards took place?

Questions on Table III.

When did the first Olympiad begin?

When did Solon form his code of laws?

When did the Persian war begin? The Peloponnesian war? When did Alexander invade Persia? Battle of Ipsus? Pydna?

When was Greece reduced to a Roman province

What were some of the events of the 8th century B. C.? The 7th? &c

Table IV.

Pable IV. contains some of the most illustrious Greeks that flourished between 700 B. C. and A. D. 200. The 4th and 5th centuries B. C. comprised the most flourishing period of Grecian literature. The only Greek authors who lived earlier than the time embraced in the Table, and whose works are still extant, were the poets *Homer* and *Hesiod*, who are supposed to have flourished about 9 or 10 centuries B. C.

Most of the ancient sects of philosophy, the principal of which are mentioned in pages 44 and 45, had their origin among the Greeks.

The most illustrious Greek poets are Homer, the great epic poet; Pindar, a lyric poet; Æschylus, Euripides, Sophocles, Aristophanes, and Menander, dramatic poets. Phidias and Praziteles were famous statuaries; Polygnotus, Parrhasius, Zeuxis, and Apelles, eminent painters.

The most distinguished historians are Herodotus, Thucydides, Xeno-phon, Polybius, Diodorus Siculus, and Dionysius of Halicarnassus.

Questions on Table IV.

What statesmen and warriors flourished in the 7th century B. C. Ir the 6th? &cc.

What philosophers flourished in the 6th century B. C.? In the 5th?

	TO THE PART OF THE
B.C.	TABLE V.—ROMAN HISTORY.—No. 1. From the Foundation of Rome to the end of the Commonwealth.
800	53 ROMULUS, founds Rome; institutes the senate; divides the
8th	people into tribes and curie; patricians and plebeians. 15 Numa Pompilius, a pacific king; regulates religious ceremonics.
700	72 Tulius Hostilius. Combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.
7th	40 Angus Martius, builds the port of Ostia; conquers the Latins.
1	16 TARQUIN the Elder, constructs the cleace: founds the capital.
600	78 SERVIUS TULLIUS, establishes the census, made every 5th year.
6th	34 Tarquin, the Proud, disgusts the people by his tyranny: rape of Lucretia by his son Sextus. The Tarquins expelled; the regal government abolished, 509, and the Commonwealth begins.
500	See Lartius, first Dictator. Contests between the Patricians and Plebeians: the latter retire to Mons Secr. Tribuses overed.
	Plebeians; the latter retire to Mons Sacer. Tribunes created.
	85 Dissensions respecting Agrarian Law begin. Coriolanus.
504	711Law Volero: the privileges of the Plebeians increased.
<i></i>	56 Cincinnatus Dictator; defeats the Volsei and Æqui. 51 Decembers appointed; Laws of the Twelve Tables.
	49 The Decemvirs banished 445. Military Tribunes created.
	45 Intermarriages of the Patricians and Plebeians.
400	37 Two Censors appointed.—406. The troops receive regular pay. 91 Veii taken by Camillus, the Dictator.
	90 The Gauls under Brennus defeat the Romans, and burn Roms.
4th	83 Manlius Capitolinus thrown down the Tarpeian rock.
	43 War with the Samnites begins: lasts 53 years.
300	38 The Campanians subdued.—32. The Appian Way formed.
•••	80 War with the Turentines and Pyrrhus.—206. Lower Italy conq. 64 First PUNIC WAR; lasts till 241.—355. Regulus defeated.
	22 Cisalpine Gaul reduced to a Roman province.
	18 Second PUNIC WAR; lasts till 201.
3 <i>d</i>	18 HANNIBAL defeats the Romans on the Ticinus and the Trebia; (217) on the Thrasymenus; and (216) at CANNÆ.
	Romans (Marcellus) take Syracuse; and (210) conquer Sicily.
	7 The Romans (Nero and Livy) defeat Asdrubal at Metaurus.
200	2 The Romans (Scipio Africanus) defeat Hunnibal at Zama.
	77 The Romans defeat the Macedonians at Cynocephale. 68 Battle of Pydna; Macedonia reduced to a Roman province.
	49 Third PUNIC WAR; ends (146), CARTHAGE being destroyed.
2 <i>d</i>	46 Corinth taken, and all GREECE reduced to a Roman province.
~u	33 Numantia taken after a long siege. 33 Tiberius Gracchus slain.—21. Caius Gracchus slain.
	11 War against Jugurtha; -concluded (106) by Marius and Sylla.
	2 Marius defeats the Teutones at Aquæ Sextia.
100	89 Mithridatic war;lasts till 66.
	50 Civil war between marries and Symbo.—Co. Symbo proscription.
	73 Scrvile war.—65. Syria conquered by Pompey. 63 Catiline's Conspiracy suppressed by Cicero.
	(io) First Triumvirute; Pompey, Crassus, and Cosar.
1st	48 Civil year, Casar and Pompey: battle of Pharsalla.
	45] California Programment Cotavina, Antony, and Lepidea
	45 CÆSAR perpetual Dictator;—44. Cæsar murdered. 43 Second Triumvirate; Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus. 42 Battle of Philippi; Brutus and Cassius overthrown.
1	31 Battle of Action gained by Augustus, who puts an end to the
0	Commonwealth, and becomes emperor.

_	_	TABLE VI.—ROMAN HISTORY.—No. 2.
From	i ik	e end of the Commonwealth to the extinction of the Western Empire.
	31	Augustus, 1st Emperor: golden period of Roman Literature.
A.D.	14	TIBERIUS, 2, characterized by cruelty and oppression.
	36	Caligula, 3, noted for profligacy and folly; is murdered.
1	41	CLAUDIUS, 4, a weak sovereign; invades Britain.
1	54	Nero, 5, a profligate tyrant; sets Rome on fire. Peter and Paul.
١	68	GALBA, 6, slain and succeeded by [79] Отно, 7; by VITELLIUS, 8.
lst	70	VESPASIAN, 9, a popular emperor. Jerusalem taken by Titus.
	61	Tirus, 10. Herculaneum and Pompeii overwhelmed.
	01	DOMITIAN, 11, a cruel tyrant, the last of the Twelve Casars, Julius Casar being the first. Britain conquered by Agricola.
	46	NERVA, 12, enfeebled by age; adopts Trajan for his successor.
1	98	TRAJAN, 13, a great sovereign. The empire in its greatest extent.
100	17	Appear 14 journage through the empire : rehuilds Ismusalem
	28	ADRIAN, 14, journeys through the empire; rebuilds Jerusalem. ANTONINUS Plus, 15, eminent for his public and private virtues.
	ı~	MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, 16, the virtuous stoic philosopher.
2d	80	Commonus, 17, profligate and cruel; is assassinated.
l	93	PERTINAX, 18, proclaimed by the Pretorian guards; murdered.
ĺ	93	Dinius Julianus, 19, purchases the empire; soon put to death.
200		Septimius Severus, 20, defeats his competitors, Niger & Albinus.
200	11	CARACALLA and GETA, 21, two brothers; murdered.
l	17	Macrinus, 22, murdered at the instigation of Heliogabalus.
1		Heliogabalus, 23, a monster of cruelty and vice; is murdered.
ł	22	ALEX'DER SEVERUS, 24, an excellent prince; defeats the Persians.
i	30	MAXIMIN, 25, of gigantic stature. During his reign, GORDIAN I.,
	25	26, is proclaimed by the army; unites Gordian II., 27. Maximus and Balbinus, 28; both slain.
	38	GORDIAN III., 29, defeats the Persians under Sapor.
34	44	PHILIP, 30, the Arabian, succeeded by Decius, 31.
	51	Gallus, 32, with Gallus Volusian. [54] Ælmilian, 33.
	54	VALERIAN, 34, taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia.
ł	61	GALLIENUS, 35; succeeded by [68] CLAUDIUS, 36.
1	170	Aurrijan, 37. a great warrior, defeats Zenobia, the Goths. &c.
l	75	TACITUS, 38. [76] FLORIAN, 39. [77] PROBUS, 40. [82] CARUS, 41.
l	10%	Numerian and Carinus, 42.
•	104	DIOCLETIAN, 43. The empire divided into four parts, under two emperors and two Casars. The last persecution of Christians.
300	۱.	
1		CONSTANTINE, 44, the Great, 1st Christian emp — Constantinople. CONSTANTINE II., CONSTANTIUS, & CONSTANS, 45, three emperors.
l	61	JULIAN, 46, the Apostute, recistablishes the pagen worship.
1	63	JOVIAN, 47, restores the Christian religion.
4th	64	VALENTINIAN, I., 48, emp. West. 64 VALENS I., emp. of the East.
1	175	Gratian, 49, [83] Val. II., 50, 79 Throdosius the Great.
İ	92	THEODOSIUS, 51, the Great, last emperor of the West and East.
	-	Western Empire.—Rome. Eastern EmpireConstantinople.
400		Honorius, 52. Alaric. 95 Arcadius.
1 200	24	VALENTINIAN III., 53. Attila. 8 THEODOSIUS II. Theodosian
i	55	MAXIMUS, 54. [55] AVITUS, 55. Code. Invasion of the
	p7	MAJORIAN, 56. [61] SEVERUS, Huns under Attila.
54	70	57. [67] ATHENIUS, 58. 50 MARCIAN. OLYBRIUS, 59. [73] GLUCE-57 LEO, the Great, first emperor
	1.2	RIUS, 60. [74] J. NEPOS, 61. crowned by the Patriarch.
l	75	AUGUSTULUS ROMULUS, 62. 74 ZENO, makes Theodoric the
,	1	Odogcer puts an end to the Ostrogoth, his general.
L	1	Western Empire, in 476. 91 Anastasius. Google

	TABLE	VII.—Curore	LOGY OF ROI	CAN LITERATU	RE.
B.C. 500		Poets.	Historians.	Philosophers, Orators, &c.	Jows and Christians.
5ek 100	Coriolanus Cincinnatus				Ezra Malachi
ith	Camillus Manline				Jadus
34	Fabricius Marcellus	Livius And. Nævius			Sadoc Jesus Sirac
00 d	Scipio Afric.	Ennius			Mattathias Judas Mac. J. Hyrcanu
00	Marius Sylla	Terence			J. Hyrcanu
	Sertorius Catiline Crassus	Roscius,	Sisenna J. CÆSAR		Shammai
rÉ	Pompey Lucullus Cato, <i>Utica</i>	<i>Drama</i> Lucretius Catullus	Sallust Hirtius Pan- sa	Hortenmus CICERO	Hillel
	Cesar Brutus	VIRGIL Propertius	Cornelius Nepos	Varro, Literature	
0	Cassius Antony	Tibullus Horace	_	Vitruvius, Architecture	
V	Emperors	Ovid Phædrus Persius	LIVY Valerius Ma. Pomp. Mela,	Columella	John Baptis Philo Jonathan Onkelos
£		Lucan Petronius Silius Itali- cus Valerius	Geog. Paterculus Quintus Curtius	Seneca Pliny, Sen.	Peter Paul Josephus
_		Flaccus Statius	TACITUS	Quinctilian, Criticism	John Clemens Ro
d d		Martial Juvenal	Pliny, Jun. Suetonius Florus Aulus Gellius	Frontinus M. Aurelius Antoninus	Ignatius Papias Justin Mar. Polycarp
00		Palladius	Justin		Irenœus Tertulli an
d		Calpurnius			Origen Cyprian
h		Ausonius	Vopiscus Lampridius Eutropius		Arius Athanasius Ambrose
)() ja		Prudentius	V. Sequester		Chrysostom Jerome
<i>n</i> 10		Claudian	Orosius		Augustine Fulgentius
k 0		Mar. Capella	Cassiodorus		Benedict
th			Boethius Trebonian	by Google	Gregory Isidore

REMARKS AND QUESTIONS.

The Tables V. and VI. exhibit the Chronology of the Regnan History from the foundation of Rome to the end of the Western Empire.—The figures on the left hand of the emperors denote the commencement of their reign; those on the right, the number of the emperor; as Augustus was 1st, Tiberius the 2d, &c.

Ouestions on Table V.

Whe was the first king of Rome? Who the last? When did Romulus begin to reign? When was the regal government abolished? What was done by Romulus? Numa? &c.

When did the contests between the Patricians and Plebeians begin? When was Rome burnt by the Gauls? When did the first Punic war commence? The second? The third? What were Hannibal's victories?

When did the Mithridatic war begin? The civil war between Marius and Sylla? Between Cæsar and Pompey? The battle of Actium?

What events took place in the 4th century before the Christian era? In the 3d? &c.

Questions on Table VI.

Who was the first emperor of Rome? Who was the last emperor of the

Western Empire?

When did Augustus begin to reign? Trajan? Diocletian? Constantine the Great? Who was the last of the Twelve Cassars? Who was the last sole emperor of the West and East?

When was the empire divided into the Western and Eastern?

When did the Western Empire terminate?

What is said of Augustus and his reign? Tiberius? &c.

Table VII.

The most flourishing period of Roman Literature comprised the century Immediately preceding, and that immediately following, the Christian era. The Augustan Age, or the reign of Augustus, embraced about 44 years, from 31 B. C. to A. D. 14.

The principal Roman or Latin Posts were Virgil, the great Roman epic

poet, Terence, Lucretius, Horace, Ovid, Lucan, and Juvenal; the most eminent Historians, Casar, Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus.

The Romans were less inclined to philosophical speculation than the Greeks; and philosophy was but little cultivated among them till the time of Cicero, who was the most eminent of the Roman philosophers as well as orators, and was inclined to the Academic sect. Brutus, Cato (of Utica), Seneca, and the emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, were distinguished as Stoics.

The term Fathers is usually applied to the Christian authors of the first 7 centuries of the Christian era. The Apostolic Age ended near the close of the first century. The earliest of the Christian Fathers enumerated in the Table, is Clemens Romanus. Several of the most eminent are enume-

rated in the succeeding centuries.

Questions on Table VII.

What public men flourished in the 5th century before the Christian era! In the 4th? &c.

What poets flourished in the 2d century before Christ? In the first? What ones in the first century after Christ? In the second? dec.

TABLE VIII.—HISTORY OF FRANCE.—No. 1. From Pepin to Henry IV.

A. D.	1	Kings.	ys.	
700	52	Pepin	16	Carlovingian Race. Son of Charles Martel, supplants Childeric III. succeeds to the throne, and founds the second
1	1	Charlemagne	46	or Carlovingian Race of French kings. The greatest sovereign of the age; founds, in 800, the Empire of the West.
800	14			The empire divided into 3 kingdoms.
	4 0	Charles 1. the Bata		Battle of Funtenay; invasion of the Normans
0.2		Louis II. Stammer. Louis III. &		Makes grants to the nobles and bishops. Carloman, reign jointly.
9th		Charles II. Fat	4	The imperial dignity transferred to Germany
	88	Eudes	10	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
000	98	Charles III. Simple	25	Invasion of the Normans under Rollo.
800	22	Robert	1	
	23	Kodolph		Defeats the Normans.
		Louis IV. Lothaire		Surnamed Outremer or Stranger. Hugh the Great, a powerful nobleman.
10th		Louis V.	1	Governed by Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Gr Cupetian Race.
	87	Hugh Capet		Obtains the crown; founds the Capetian Race
1000	Yn.	Kohert	35	A victim of papal tyranny.
1144	31	Henry I.	29	Prevalence of duelling.
1100	ου	Philip I.		First Crusade; Peter the Hermit.
1100	8	Louis VI. Fut		An able and useful sovereign.
12th		Louis VII.		Second Crusade; St. Bernard; Abelard.
1200		Philip II. Aug.	_	A powerful sovereign: third Crusade.
		Louis VIII. Lion St. Louis IX.	3	Crusade against the Albigenses. Engages in two Crusades; dies at Tunis.
13th		Philip III. Hardy		Massacre of the Sicilian Vespers.
		Philip IV. Fair		Quarrels with Boniface. Knights Templars.
1300	_	Louis X. Hutin	2	
		John I.	1~	Dies an infant 4 days old.
		Philip V. Long		The Salic Law recognised.
	22	Charles IV. Fair	6	Supports his sister Isabella of England.
14th	200	Dhilin WT (<i>Val</i> ada)		Branch of Valois.
i		John II. Good		Defeated at Cressy, &c. gains Dauphiny. Defeated at Poitiers, and taken prisoner.
1		Charles V. Wise		Recovers the English possessions.
1400	80	Charles VI.	42	Defeated by the English at Agincourt.
1400	22	Charles VII. Vict.	39	The siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc.
15th	61	Louis XI.	22	The Tiberius of France; title Most Christian.
1000		Charles VIII.		Makes an expedition against Naples.
1500		Louis XII.		Duke of Orleans; League of Cambray.
	15	Francis I.	32	Duke of Angoulême; an able sovereign; a pa-
1	47	Henry II.	10	tron of literature; at war with Charles V. Defeated at St. Quentin; recovers Calais.
1	59	Francis II.		Husband of Mary Queen of Scots.
16th	60	Charles IX.		Civil Wars commence: Guise, Conde, and
1	1			Coligni; St. Bartholomew Massacre.
	74	Henry III.	15	Leagus formed against the Protestants; the
L	1	<u></u>	느	king assassinated by James Clement.
			28	▼

	TABLE IX.—HISTORY OF FRANCE.—No. 2. From Henry IV. to Louis Philip.						
A. D.		Kinge.	vs.	·····			
1500	-1			House of Bourbon.			
	89	Henry IV. Great	21	An able general, a great and popular sovereign; triumphs over the <i>League</i> in the battle of			
16th				lary; renounces Protestantism and becomes Catholic; issues the Edict of Nantes tolerating the Protestants; aided by the Duke Sully, promotes the prosperity of the people.			
1000	10	Louis XIII.	33	Mary de Medicis regent; afterwards Cardinal Richelieu prime minister: Rochells taken, and the power of the Protestants crushed: Revolt of the Duke of Orleans.			
17th	43	Louis XIV.	72	Possessed of talents and unbounded ambition; his reign the longest and the most renowned for literature and the arts in French history, also distinguished for military achievements; Colbert, Vauban, Turenne, and Condé: the canal of Languedoc formed; the Edict of Nantes revoked, and more than 500,000 Protestants driven into exile.			
1700	15	Louis XV.	59	Profligate and tyrannical; Mississippi Scheme of Law: Pacific administration of Cardinal Fleury; War of the Austrian Succession, ended by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle: War			
184 1800		Louis XVI.		with England, and loss of Canada. Begins his reign in a time of great difficulty and danger; Turgot, and afterwards Necker, ministers: the Americans assisted: the States-General convoked; the National Assembly formed; and the Revolution begins, 1789. France declared a Republic, 1792: Louis and Queen Antoinetts beheaded, 1793: War with Prussia, Austria, Great Britain, &c.: Robespierre; Reign of Terror: (Louis XVII. dies 1795: Bonaparte; victories at Marengo, &c.: made First Consul, 1799.			
	4	Bonaparte Louis XVIII.		Crowned emperor; gains the victories of Austerlitz, Jena, &c., and extends his dominion: invades Russia, and gains the battle of Borodino; retreats; defeated at Leipsic; deposed (1814) and sent to Elba; escapes, and is overthrown at Waterloo (1815); sent to St. Helena. Restored. Constitutional Charter established:			
19th		Charles X.		Louis displaced by Bonaparte, but again restored: Invasion of Spain. Weak and arbitrary; Vilèle, Martignac, and			
		Challes A.		Polignac successively ministers: the government adopt despotic measures, revolution ensues, and Charles dethroned.			
	34	Louis Philip		Duke of Orleans, called to the throne by the Chamber of Deputies: the Constitutional Charter new-modelled: Perier, Soult, Brogtie, Guizot, Gerard, &c., ministers.			

Table X.—Chronology of Italian, French, Spanish, German, &c.
Literature.

1400 PANTE 21	A. D.		died.	French.	3	Spanish and Portuguese.	died.	German, Dutch,	į.
1400 Poggio Proissart 2	1300		21				_		
1500	14th					Juan Manual	62	1	
15th	1400								
Pulci		3 Loggio				#¥7:11			15
Mirandola 94	15 <i>th</i>	*Pulci				*In'n d'Mone	54	The A Kommie	68 71
RAPHARL 20 St. d'Comines 9 Ximenes 17 Reuchlin 20 St. de Vinci 20		Mirandola		Citartier	90	*L dMendoza			76
I. De Virci 20 Budsus 40 Garcilaso 36 Abb. Durer 28 Macchiavel 28 Bucer 51 Boscan 43 Zuinglius 31 Correggio 34 J. C. Scaliger 58 S. d'Miranda 58 Paracelsus 40 \$6 Guicardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 40 \$6 Guicardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 41 \$6 Guicardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 41 \$6 Guicardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 41 \$7 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 42 \$7 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 43 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 44 Morales 86 Holbein 55 Holbein 56 Holbein 56 Holbein 56 Holbein 57 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 56 Holbein 57 Montemayor Gl. Coperaticus 56 Holbein 57 Montemayor 57 Montemayor 57 Moratardini 57 Montemayor 57 Moratardini 57 Mo	1500			&P. d'Comine	. 0				22
SMACHIAVEL 22 Bucer 51 *Boscan 43 Zuinglius 33		II. DE VIECE	90	Budseus	40	*Garcilaso			2
16th Guiciardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor 61 Copersticus 40 R. Stephens 50 Montemayor 61 Copersticus 40 R. Angelo 47 Castalio 63 CAmoers 79 Luffer 47 Vargas 90 Sleidan 55 Palladio 80 Montaigne 92 Luis de Leon 91 Melancthon 66 Call VIN 64 Morales 86 Holbein 55 Montemayor 61 Copersticus 46 Montaigne 41 Vargas 90 Sleidan 55 Vargas 90 Sleidan 56 Holbein 56 Holbein 57 Vargas 90 Sleidan 57 Vargas 90 Vargas 50 Sleidan 57 Vargas 90 Vargas 50 Vargas		§ MACHIAVEL	28		51	*Boscan	43	Zuinglius	31
Squiciardini 40 R. Stephens 59 Montemayor 61 Coperations 48 Bembo 47 Castalio 63 *Cameras 79 LUTHER 48 *Ititian 76 Ramus 72 Vargas 90 Sleidan 59 Falladio 80 Montaigne 92 *Luis de Leon 91 Melancthon 68 Montaigne 92 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 92 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 93 *Ititian 94 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 94 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 95 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 96 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 96 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 96 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 98 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Luis de Leon 91 Mercator 97 *Mercator 97 *Malpirana 24 Keplen 24 Keplen 24 Keplen 24 Keplen 25 Kubens		'WWIO910	ູ	Rabelais					36
Sembo	10.1				58	"S. d'Miranda	58	Paracelsus	41
M. Argelo 64 Calvin 64 Morales 86 Holbein 57 Titian 76 Ramus 72 Vargas 90 Sleidan 58 Palladio 80 Montaigne 92 Luis de Leon 91 Melancthon 68 Morales 86 Holbein 57 Morales 95 Morales 95 Morales 96 Ercilla Melancthon 68 Mercator 98 Mercator 99 Melancthon 68 Mercator 99 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Mercator 99 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Melancthon 69 Mercator 99 Malpire 100 Melancthon 69 Mercator 90 Melancthon 69 Malpire 100 Melancthon 69 Mercator 90 Mercator 90 Melancthon 60 Mercator 90 Melancthon 60 Mercator 90 Melancthon 60 Melan	ASOL								43 46
Titian									40 54
Palladio SO Montaigne 92 * Luis de Leon 91 Melancthon 67 TASSO 95 H. Stephens 98 * Ercilla Mercator 98 Fercilla 98 Fercilla 99									56
TASSO 95 H. Stephens 96 *Ercilla Mercator 97		Palladio			92	*Luis de Leon			60
**Guarini 13 *Beza 5 *Thuanus 17 *Argensola 13 *Arminius 13 *Arminius 14 *Tassoni 23 *Malherbe 28 *CERV'NTES 16 *Buxtorf 29 *CERV'NTES 16 *C		*TASSO	95	H. Stephens					94
Stather Paul 23 Stather Paul 24 Stather Paul 25 Stather Paul 26 Stather Paul 27 Stather Pa	1000	*Guarini	13	Beza	-5			Tycho Brebe	_1
Sample S		Bellarmine	21	§Thuanus	17	*Argensola	13	Arminius	19
Tassoni 35 Descartes 50 Herera 25 Rubens 4 Gassendi 55 Lope d'Vega 35 Vandyck 4 Guido 42 Pascal 62 Quevedo 45 Episcopius 4 Poussin 65 Velasquez 60 Grorius 4 Foussin 65 Velasquez 60 Grorius 4 Poussin 65 Velasquez 60 Grorius 4 Fernini 80 *Corneille 84 Solis 86 Guericke 80 Foromeo 94 *La Fontaine 95 Murillo 85 Puffendorf 94 Malpighi 94 *Racine 99 F. Socinus 4 Sossuet 4 *Candarno 9 F. Socinus 4 Sossuet 4 *Candarno 9 F. Socinus 4 Solis 60 Fuffendorf 94 Muratti 13 *Boileau 11 Gravina 18 *Fenelon 15 Ferreras 35 Eahl 35 Eahl 36 Ea			23	*Malherbe					21
GALILEO 42 Gassendi 55 *Lope d'Vega 35 Vandyck 4 Guido 42 Pascal 62 *Quevedo 45 Episcopius 4 Poussin 65 Velasquez 60 Grorius 4 Poussin 65 Velasquez 67 Rembrandt 61 Episcopius 62 Velasquez 60 Grorius 4 Rembrandt 62 *Villegas 60 Grorius 4 Rembrandt 63 Episcopius 64 Rembrandt 64 Rembrandt 65 Episcopius 65 Velasquez 67 Rembrandt 65 Episcopius 67 Rembrandt 65 Episcopius 67 Rembrandt 68 Fourius 69 Villegas 69 Spinoza 7 Rembrandt 68 Fourius 69 Fourius 60 Fourius		Davila							31
17th Guido		"l'assoni			50	herera			41
\$Bentevoglio	1744				50 60	*Operedo	3 5		43
Torricelli	17th								45
L. Socinus Claude Lor. S2 *Villegas Couring Spinoza Couring Section Se		Torricelli							68
Borromeo			62	Claude Lor.	82	*Villegas			77
Malpighi 94 *Racine 99 Huygens 9			80	*Corneille	84				86
F. Socinus			94	*La Fontaine		† Murillo	85		94
Cassini 12 Sayle 6 Vitrings 2	1700				99				95
Maratti 13					-	*Candarno	9		16
Gravina 18 *Fenelon 15 \$Ferreras 35 Le.Clere 3 \$Muratori 50 \$Rollin 41 8 Maffei 55 Le. Sage 47 Boerhaave 3 Bernouilli 55 Montesquieu 55 Wolff 5 Montesquieu 55 *Metastasio 82 *VOLTAIRE 78 Boscovitch 87 Rousseau 78 \$Mosheim 5					•			22 34	
SMuratori 50 SRollin 41 Boerhaave 3			10	"BOILEAU		S.Formore	25		34 36
18th Total	`					dr erreras	w		38
Goldoni 72 Montesquieu 55 Wolff 55 Mosheim 55 M	•	*Maffei	55	Le Sage					48
Boscovitch 87 Rousseau 78 Stoedenborg 78 5 Tiriboschi 94 D'Alembert 83 Haller 78		Goldoni	72	Montesquieu	55		- 1		54
Striboschi 94 D'Alembert 83 Haller 7									55
Becca*:a 95 Buffon 88 LinkEut 7 Galvani 98 Condorcet 94 Ulloa 95 Lessing 8 Spallanzani 99 Lavoisier 94 Ulloa 95 Euler 8							i		72
Solution 98 Condorcet 94 Ulloa 95 Euler 8									77 78
Spallanzani 99 Lavoisier 94 Ulloa 95 Euler 8	• ,								81
Alfieri 3 Fourcroy 9 Lavater						Ulloa	95	Euler	83
\$ Denina	1800				-		_		- 1
19th Canova 22 De Stael 17 § Llorente 23 Kant Volta 27 La Place 27 Schiller *Schiller *Wieland 1 *Monti. 28 Cuviba 39 *Goethe 3					-			*Klopstock	•
Volta 27 LA PLACE 27 *Schiller *Foscolo 27 Champollion 32 *Wieland 1 *Monti 28 Cuvina 39 *Goethe 3	10-4		22	De Stael	17	& Llorente	23	Kant	4
*Foscolo 27 Champollion 32 *Wieland 1 *Most. 28 CUVIBA 39 *Goethe 3			27	LA PLACE	27	-			5
1.12040 20/00/124 000			27	Champollion					13
		"Monti	28	CUVIBA	30			"Goethe	32
* Poets: † Painters: § Historians: those in Relice Divines.		* Posts	1	Painters : § Histor	ian	: those in Relice	Div	ines.	

REMARKS AND QUESTIONS.

N. B. The figures on the left-hand of the Kings and Emperors, in the different Tables, denote the time when they began to reign; the figures on the right-hand, the length of their reigns: as in Table I., Saul began to reign 1195 B. C., and reigned 40 years:—Table II., Jeroboam began to reign 1075 B. C., and reigned 21 years:—Table V., Augustus, the first Roman Emperor, began to reign 31 B. C.; Tiberius, second Emperor, in 14 A. D.:
—Table IX., Pepin began to reign A. D. 752, and reigned 16 years:—and so of the rest.

Questions on Table VIII.

Who were the first two kings of the Carlovingian Race? Who the first of the Capetian Race? Of the Branch of Valois? When did Charlemagne begin to reign? Hugh Capet? St. Louis IX.? Philip VI.? Francis I.? What is said of Pepin and his reign? Charlemagne? &c.

Questions on Table IX.

When did Henry IV. begin to reign? Louis XIV.? Louis XVI.? Bonaparte? Louis XVIII.? Louis Philip?
What is said of Henry IV. and his reign? Louis XIII.? &c.

Table X.

In the revival of learning in modern times, Italy has the honor of having taken the lead. The 14th century was illustrated by the celebrated names of Dante, Petrarch and Boccaccio; and in the 15th and 16th centuries, Italian genius, in literature and the fine arts, shone forth with great lustre under the patronage of the Houses of Medici and Ests.

Literature began to flourish in France in the 16th century, under the patronage of Francis I.; but its most brilliant period was during the long reign of Louis XIV., in the latter half of the 17th and the early part of the

18th centuries.

The 16th and 17th centuries embrace the most flourishing period of literature in Spain, and the most distinguished name in Spanish literature

is Cervantes; and in Portuguese literature, Cumoens.

Germany has given birth to a succession of eminent scholars and philosophers since the Reformation; and has, for some time past, produced a greater number of learned authors than any other country. The Germans claim the merit of many important inventions, as gunpowder, printing, watches, the air-pump, and the telescope. Copernicus, a native of Thorn, on the borders of Germany, was the restorer of the true system of the world.

Holland has produced many learned men, among whom may be mentioned Erasmus, the most celebrated scholar of his age, and Grotius, entinent for his talents and learning. The most eminent name among the

Swedish men of science is Linnaus, the naturalist.

Questions on Table X.

What distinguished men did Italy produce in the 14th century? In the 15th? &c.

TABLE XI.—HISTORY OF ENGLAND.—No. 1. From the accession of Egbert to the death of Richard III.

·			<u> </u>	Egoert to the death of Richard III.
A. D.	\vdash	Kings.	<u> P''</u>	
800		17. 1	١	Suzon Family.
, ,	37	Egbert	11	First sole monarch of England : end of the
	30	Ethelwolf	μų	Sazon Heptarchy.
9th	27	Ethelbald	3	(The Danes begin their hostile attacks,
	67	Ethelbert	10	and continue more than two centuries
	00	Ethelred I.	5	
666	<u> </u>	Alfred		An illustrious king; has a prosperous reign.
900	00	Edward, Elder	25	The Danes defeated.
	1251	A theistan	16	Defeats the Danes, Welsh, Scots, &c.
i		Edmund L	7	Murdered by the robber Leolf.
	# 8	Edred	7	A slave of superstition, and dupe of Dunstan.
10th	55	Edwy ,	4	
	59	Edgar		Dunstan archbishop: Wolves exterminated.
1	75	Edward, Mertyr	3	Assassinated by order of Elfrida.
1000	78	Ethelred II.	37	Massacre of the Danes at festival St. Brice.
TOO	15	Sweyn, Dane		Conquers England, and is proclaimed king.
1	16	Edmund II. Ir'side	i	Defeated by the Danes, and murdered.
	-		-	Danish Kings.
1	17	Cannte, Great	19	Completes the conquest of England.
ł	36	Canute, <i>Great</i> Harold I.		Surnamed Harefoot.
l	30	Canute IL		The power of the Danes terminates.
114	1		١٦	Saxon Line restored.
Ì	41	Edward Confessor	24	First king that touched for the King's Evil.
1	85	Harold II.		Defeated and slain at Hastings.
)	Γ		1	Norman Family.
1	66	William, Cong'ror	21	Conquers England; introduces the Feudal
1		,		System and Norman language.
***	87	William II.	13	Is shot while hunting. Abp. Anselm.
1100		Henry I.	-	Usurps the throne of his brother Robert.
I		Stephen, Blois		Usurps, and has contests with Matilda.
1	۳	cochucu, moss	1.5	Family of Plantagenet.
19/4	54	Henry II.	25	Conquers Ireland; has long and severe con-
		ixemy II.	۳	tests with Becket: rebellion of his sons.
1	20	Richard L	10	Engages in a Crusade, and defeats Saladin.
1		John	17	Foreign dominions lost. Mama Charte
1200	·			Foreign dominions lost: Magna Charta.
1	16	Henry III.	56	Battles of Lewes and Eveshum: Montfort;
13th	_	17	L-	First House of Commons.
1200	72	Edward I.		Subdues Wales; battles of Falkirk, &c.
1.000	7	Edward II.	20	Defeated by the Scots at Bannockburn.
1	27	Edward III	50	A splendid reign: Chivalry in its zenith:
1	l	i .	1	Victories of Cressy, Poictiers, &c.: Ed-
14th	1	ĺ	1	ward the Black Prince.
1	77	Richard II.	22	Deposed and murdered. Wickliffe; Chaucer.
1	1		1	Branch of Lancaster.
1400	99	Henry IV.	14	Gains the throne instead of the rightful heir.
1400	13	Henry V.	-	Victory of Agincourt. Oldcastle burnt.
1	22	Henry VI.	30	Civil wars of the White and Red Roses;
Į.	Γ,		100	York and Lancaster.
15th	1		1	Branch of York.
1	61	Edward IV.	199	Battles of Towton, Barnet, and Towksbury.
i '		Edward V.	1	Murdered after a reign of 74 days.
1.		Richard III.	10	Defeated and slain at Bosworth.
<u> </u>			<u>. ~</u>	12 COUNTY WITH BURNING DUGWYCHE.

				HISTORY OF ENGLAND No. 2. m Henry VII. to William IV.
A. D.	П	Kings.	ivs.	,
1400	r	Henry VII.	24	House of Tudor. Marries Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., uni-
15th				ting the Houses of York & Lancaster; commerce encouraged; the Feudal System declines.
1500		Henry VIII.		A cruel tyrant; the victory of Flodden by Surrey; introduces the Reformation; 2 queens divorced, two beheaded; Wolsey disgraced; Bp. Fisher, Sir T. More, Cromwell, and Surrey beheaded.
16cA	53	Edward VI. Mary	5	Promotes the Reformation, aided by Cranmer. Restores Cath. relig.; marries Philip II. of Spain; Jane Grey beheaded; many Protestants burnt.
1600		Elizabeth	44	Has an auspicious reign, assisted by Bacon, Bur- leigh, Walsingham, &c. agriculture, commerce, and literature flourish; the Church of England established; Mary Queen of Scots beheaded; the Spanish Armado destroyed.
1600	1 _1	James I.	22	House of Stuart. Unites the crowns of England and Scotland; the Gunpowder Plot defeated; the Bible trans- lated; the Puritans settle at Plymouth, Mass.
	25	Charles I.	24	Despotic; attempts to raise money without consent of Parliament; civil war rages; Strafford and Laud beheaded; Charles defeated and beheaded (1649); the Commonwealth begins.
17 th		Cromwell	ł	Dissolves the Long Parliament, and becomes Protector. Navigation Act. Dutch war.
		Charles II. James II.		Profligate; his reign injurious to liberty and me- rality; Plague and Fire in London: Clarendon banished; Russell and Alg. Sydney executed. Attempts to establish the Cutholic religion, and is
	 •	William III. & Mary	1	obliged to abdicate; hence the Revolution. Constitution confirmed: battles of Boyne and La Hogue: Peace of Ryswick: Nat. Debt begins.
1700	Ĩ	Anne		Marlborough and Eugene's victories of Blenkeim, Ramillies, Malplaquet, &c.: Literature flourishes. House of Brunswick or Hanover.
		George I. George II.	1	Rebellion in favor of the <i>Pretender</i> suppressed: South Sea Scheme. Walpole minister. The Pretender overthrown at Culloden: War with
18th		George III.		France carried on in Europe, Asia, and America: Battle of Dettingen: Conquest of Canada. A long and eventful reign: Hostilities with, and
1800				loss of, the American Colonies: long war with France, terminated by the battle of Waterloo: Possessions in India greatly extended: Commerce and the arts flourish; but the National
	20	George 1V.	10	Debt greatly increased. Regency 1811. A Bill of Pains and Penalties brought into Parliament against the Queen (Caroline), but relin-
19th	30	William IV.		quished: Battle of Navarino: Corporation and Test Acts repealed: Catholic Emancipation. The Duke of Wellington's ministry succeeded by that of Earl Grey: the Reform Bill passes.

TABLE XIII.—CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE								
A. D. 1500	Statesmen and Commanders.	·3	Poets.	died.	Divines.	died.	Miscellaneous.	died
	Wolsey		Skelton		Tyndall	36		
	T Cromwell	40	Wyatt		Ridley		Th. More	35
	Somerset	52	Earl of Surry		Latimer		Th. Eliot	46
	Gardiner	55	Heywood		CRANMER	56	Leland	52
	S. Cabot	57	Gascoigne		Card. Pole	58	R. Ascham	68
	N Bacon		R. Greene		Coverdale		Holingshed	81
-	Leicester		Marlowe		J. Jewel Knox		Buchanan Tusser	82 83
1	Walsingham Drake		Southwell Peele		J. Fox		P. Sidney	86
]	Burleigh		Spenser		Hooker	0,	i . Siuney	-
1600						-00		إيب
i	Essex	1	F. Beaumont		Andrewes	20	Napier	17
	Raleigh		SHAKSP'R		Chillingw'rth			26
	Strafford		J. Fletcher		Usher Walton		Camden	28
	Pym	40	Herbert		Th. Fuller		Coke	34
	Hampden Falkland	40	Ben Jonson	3/	Taylor	67	Wotton Burton	39 39
	Blake	57	Massinger G. Sandys		Barrow		Selden	54
	Cromwell		Quarles		J. Owen		Harvey	57
	Marvell		Donne		Leighton ·		Hale	76
- 1	Monk		Cowley		Pearson		Harrington	77
	Clarendon		MILTON		II. More	87	Hobbes	79
	Shaftesbury		Roscommon		Bunyan		Th. Browne	82
	Russell		Otway		Cudworth		Dugdale	86
'	Alg. Sidney		Waller		Baxter		Sydenham	89
	Temple		Butler	88	Tillotson		Boyle	91
_ /00	Cavendish	7	DRYDEN		Howe		LOCKE	4
	Godolphin		Farquhar		Bull	_ '	Appison	19
i i	Somers		Parnell		M. Henry		Sir C. Wren	23
	Marlborough		Rowe		Burnet		NEWTON	27
	Walpole	46	Prior	21	South	16	Dr Foe	31
	Bolingbroke	51	Congreve	28	Clarke	29	Swift	45
	Vernon		Gay		Watts		Fielding	54
	Wolfe		LOPE .		Doddridge		Richardson	61
	Boscawen		Thomson		Butler		Sterne	68
18tA	Anson		Collins		Berkeley		Hume	7 6
l	Cumberland		A. Ramsay		Sherlock	61	Garrick	79
	Lyttelton		Shenstone		Lardner		Blackstone	80
	Chatham		Churchill	64	Whitefield		Johnson	84
1	Cook	79	Young		Warburton	79	Ad. Smith	90
1	Rodney	92	Akenside		Lowth		Hunter	93
l.	North Mansfield	09	Gray Goldsmith		Wesle y Price		Robertson Gibbon	93 94
	Burke		Burns		Campbell		Wm. Jones	94
·	Amherst		Cowper	90	Blair	90	Reid	97
1800							Sheridan	
	Nelson	5	2000000	3	Priestley			6
l	Pitt Fox		H. K. White	11	Paley		Cavendish Playfair	10 19
Į.	Romilly		Grahame Shelley		Horsley Porteus		E. D. Clarke	22
19th	Grattan		Byron	94	Watson	16	Herschel	22
Tam	Castlereagh		Barbauld	95	Th. Scott		Mitford	27
1	Erskine		Crabbe		Heber		Stewart	28
1.	Canning		W. Scott		R. Hall		Davv	2 9
1	Huskisson		Coleridge		A. Clarke by		Mackintosh	32

REMARKS AND QUESTIONS.

Questions on Table X1.

Who was the first of the Saxon Kings or Family? Who were the Danish kings? The Norman? The Plantagenet? Who were of the Branch of Lancaster? Of the Branch of York? What is said of Egbert or his reign? Alfred? William the Conqueror? &c.

Questions on Table XII.

What kings were of the House of Tudor? Stuart? Brunswick or Hanover?

When did Henry VII. begin to reign? Henry VIII.? &c. How long did Henry VII. reign? Henry VIII.? &c. What is said respecting Henry VII., or his reign? Henry VIII.? &c.

Table XIII.

Chaucer, the most celebrated of the early English poets, flourished in the latter part of the 14th century, in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II.; but English classical literature may be considered as beginning in the latter half of the 16th century, during the reign of Elizabeth, with Hooker, a learned divine, Spenser and Skakspeare, eminent poets, and Bacon, the philosopher, who also lived through the reign of James I. The reign of Queen Anne was particularly distinguished for men of genius,

among whom were Newton, Addison, Pope, and Swift.

Wolsey and Gardiner, who are placed in the left-hand column, were both ecclesiastics and bishops, though more distinguished as statesmen than as divines. Of those who are placed in the right-hand column, Sir Thomas More, the author of "Utopia," &c., and Lord Bacon, the philosopher, were both chancellors of England; Sir Matthew Hale was an eminent judge; Sir Edward Coke, a great lawyer:—Sir Philip Sidney, the author of "Arcadia," &c.; Hurrington, the author of "Oceana," &c. Sir Henry Wotton, John Selden, and Sir Willium Jones, all eminent scholars, were also distinguished in political life.

Some who are classed in the Table among Statesmen and Commanders, are also distinguished as authors, as Ruleigh, Clarendon, Bolingbroke, Lyttelton, Temple, Murcell, Algernon Sidney, Burke, &c.; some classed among the Divines and Miscellaneous Authors, are also noted as Poets, as Addison, Watts, Swift, Heber, &c.; and some of the Poets are also

eminent as prose writers.

Shakspeare, the great English dramatist, is eminently distinguished for genius; Milton is regarded as the greatest epic poet of modern times; Lord Bacon pointed out the true mode of philosophizing; the works of Newton formed an era in natural philosophy and astronomy; as did those of Locke in the philosophy of the human mind.

There are many names of much merit in English literature, in addition

to those contained in the Table.

Questions on Table XIII.

What eminent Statesmen and Commanders flourished in the 18th century? In the 17th? &c.

	,
A.D. 800	
9th	New Empire of the West under Charlemagne formed.
	12 The Normans under Rollo take possession of Normandy. 64 Otto the Great, emperor of Germany, conquers Italy.
11 <i>th</i>	66 William the Conqueror (battle of Hustings) conquers England. 96 FIRST CRUSADE to the Holy Land: Peter the Hermit.
1100 12th	47 Second Crusade, excited by St. Bernard. 88 Third Crusade, under Richard Lof England and Philip Augustus
1200	of France. 2 Fourth Crusade, under Baldwin, who takes Constantinople.
13th	12 Magna Charta signed by king John of England. 27 Generies Khan, emperor of the Moguls, overruns the Saracea 58 End of the Caliphate of Bagdad. [empire.]
	70 Last Crusade, under St. Louis IX. 14 Robert Bruce defeats Edward II. of England at Bannockburn.
14th	46 Edward III. of England gains the battle of Cressy. 47 Great Plague ravages Europe; said to carry off one fourth of the inhabitants.
1400	58 Timur Bek or Tumerlane commences his reign and conquests. 53 TURKS take Constantinople; end of the Eastern Roman Empire.
15 <i>c</i> k	55 The York and Lancaster War begins; lasts 30 years. 79 Arragon and Castile united, forming the kingdom of Spain. 86 The Cape of Good Hope discovered by Bartholomew Diaz. 92 AMERICA discovered by Columbus.
1500	97 Vasco de Gama reaches India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. 19 CHARLES V. elected emperor of Germany: resigns in 1556.
	22 The Globe first circumnavigated by Magellan's squadron: by Drake in 1580. 60 The Civil Wars in France begin, conducted by Condé and Guise.
1600	79 The Republic of Holland begins by the union of Utrech's. 82 The Calendar reformed by Pope Gregory. 3 Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.
17th	7 First English settlement in America, at Jamestown, Virginia. 12 First English establishment in Hindostan. 48 Peace of Westphalis or Munster: end of the 30 years' war. 49 Charles I. of England beheaded: the Commonwoulth begins.
1700	88 Revolution in England; abdication of James II. 13 Peace of Utrecht between France and the Allies. 48 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; end of the war of the Austrian Succes-
18th	52] New Style introduced into England. [sion.] 63] Peace of Paris; also of Hubertsburg. 26[The INDEPENDENCE of the United States devlared.
1900	89 The FRENCH REVOLUTION;—completed in 1792-3.
19 <i>th</i>	6 End of the German Empire. 12 War between the United States and England begins. 15 The Battle of WATERLOO; the empire of Bonaparts overthrown. 29 Peacs of Adrianople between Russia and Turkey.
	30 New Revolution in France; Charles X. dethroned. 32 The Polas subdued, and Poland incorporated with Russia. 32 The Reform Bill passes the British Parliament.

TABLES OF HISTORY.

A.D.	TABLE XV.—Ecclesiastical Chronology.
136	33 Crucifixion of JESUS CHRIST. 64 First Persecution, by Nero:—95 Second Persecution, by Domitian
100 2d	7 Third Persecution, by Trajan:—18 Fourth by Adrian. 50 The Canon of Scripture fixed about this time.
$\frac{200}{3d}$	2 Fifth Persecution, by Septimius Severus: -26 Sixth by Maximin. 50 Seventh Persecution, by Decius: -57 Eighth Pers. :-72 Ninth.
300 4th	2 Tenth (last and greatest) Persecution, by Diocletian. 25 Christianity the established religion of the Roman Empire. 25 Council of Nice, first general council: Arianism condemned,
400 5th	31 Nestorianism condemned by the council of Ephesus. 51 Eutychianism condemned by the council of Chalcedon.
4.444	50 Invocation of the Virgin Mary and Saints begins. 97 Augustine with 40 monks arrives in England.
600 7th	60 Organs begin to be used in churches.
700 8th	Great controversy respecting image worship. The Temporal Power of the Pope (Stephen) begins.
9th	17 The College of Cardinals founded by Pope Pascal. A passion for relics, and great veneration paid to saints.
900 10th	A fearful expectation of the Day of Judgment prevails. 93 Canonization first solemnly performed.
7,840	54 The separation of the Eastern or Greek Church. 77 The Celibacy of the Clergy enjoined by Pope Gregory VII. The passion for Pilgrimage at its height.
	30 Scholustic Theology in vogue; Abelard a teacher of it. 60 Rise of the Albigenses and Waldenses. 90 The power of granting Indulgences for money assumed.
and and	4 The Inquisition established by Pope Innocent III. 15 Auricular Confession established; the order of Dominicans. 53 The Old Testament and the New divided into Chapters.
	8 Seat of the Popes removed to Avignon, where it remained 70 yrs. 69 Wickliffe propagates his doctrines, and translates the Bible. Violent disputes between the Realists and Nominalists.
	14 Council of Constance, which condemned John Huss, begins. 33 The 7 sacraments, decreed by the council of Florence. 50 The Vulgate Bible, the first large book, printed.
500	17 The REFORMATION in Germany begun by Luther. 29 Diet of Spire: Protestants.—'30 Confession of Augsburg.
Tout	35 The Society of Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola. 45 The Council of Trent begins; lasts 18 years. 63 The 39 Articles of the Church of England established. 72 The it. Bartholomew Massacre of the Protestants in France.
1600	11 The English Translation of the Bible, now in use, finished.
200	 62 Act of Uniform ity in England; 2,000 ministers deprived. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes; French Protestants persecuted.
8th	29 Rise of the Methodists;—Wesley and Whitefield. 73 The Society of the Jesuits suppressed by Pope Clement XIV.
1800	4 The British and Foreign Bible Society instituted. 16 The American Bible Society instituted.

A,D	TABLE XVI.—CHRONOLOGY OF INVENTIONS
100	91 The Figures of Arithmetic brought into Europe by the Saracens 96 Clocks with toothed wheels invented in France by Gerbert.
11 <i>th</i>	Surgements begin to be need by the pobility
12th	37 The Pandects of Roman Law discovered at Amalfi. 57 The first regular Bank at Venice.
1200 13th	[60] Glass Mirrors and Magnifying Glasses invented by R. Bacon.
	90 Tallow Candles begin to be used.
1300 14sh	in the used in private houses. Let the Mariner's Compass improved by Flavio Gioia. 20 to 40. GUNPOWDER invented at Cologne by Swartz.
1400	42 Cannon used at the siege of Algeziras: Muskets in use in 1370. 50 Clocks in use: first made in England in 1568. 90 Playing Cards invented: first Paper Mill in Germany.
15th	10 Painting in oil-colors invented at Bruges by Van Eyck. 40 Art of PRINTING invented by Coster, Guttenberg, &c. 64 Past Offices established in France: in England in 1581. 71 Printing introduced into England by William Caxton.
1500	77 Watches made at Nuremberg: in use in England in 1597. 89 Maps and Charts brought into England by Barthol. Columbus. 30 The Spinning Wheel invented at Brunswick by Jurgen.
16 <i>th</i>	32/The true SOLAR SYSTEM revived by Copernicus. 45/Needles first made in England. 82/First treatise on Decimal Arithmetic published at Bruges. 86/Potatoes introduced into England from America.
1600	90 to 1620. The Telescope, by Porta, Jansen, Drebell, and Galileo. 10 The Thermometer invented by Sanctorius, Drebell, and Galileo. 14 Logarithms invented in Scotland by Napier. 19 The Circulation of the Blood discovered by Harvey. 30 The first Gazette or Newspaper at Venice: in England in 1665.
17 <i>th</i>	41 Coffee first brought into England: Tea in 1666. 43 The Barometer invented by Torricelli and Pascal. 54 The Air-pump invented at Magdeburg by Guericke. 55 The Steam Engine invented: improved by Watt in 1768. 59 Saturn's Ring discovered by Huygens. 67 The Newtonian Philosophy published in England.
1700	21 Inoculation introduced into England from Turkey. 25 Stereotype Printing invented by Ged: introduced by Didot, 1799. 52 The identity of Lightning and Electricity ascertained by Franklin.
18th	69 The Spinning Jenny invented by Arkwright. 11 The planet Urgaus or Herschel discovered by Herschel. 12 The Cotton-Gin invented by Whitney. 13 VACCINATION discovered by Dr. Jenner. 14 Galvanism discovered by Galvani.
1800	Lithography invented at Munich by Sennefelder. 7 The first STEAMBOAT on the Hudson.
194	11 The streets of London lighted with Gas. 15 The Safety-lamp invented by Sir Humphrey Davy. 18 Engraving of Steel Plates invented by Perkins. 25 Rail-roads begin to be used in England for passengers.
	Carriages propelled by Steam in England.

Table XIV.

The 14th Table exhibits some of the most important eras in Modern History; but the chronology of the rise and fall of states and empires from the earliest ages of history to the present time, may be best learnt by the Chart of History.

Questions.

When was the New Empire of the West formed?

When did William the Conqueror conquer England?

When was the first Crusade? The last? When did Gonghis Khan

everrun the Saracen Empire?

When did the Caliphate of Bagdad end?

When did Timur Bek begin his conquests?

When did the Turks take Constantinople?

When was America discovered?

When was Charles V. elected emperor of Germany?

When was the Revolution in England?

When was the Independence of the United States declared?

When did the French Revolution take place?

When was Bonaparte emperor of France? When was the battle of Waterloo?

What events are mentioned in the 9th century? The 10th? &c

Questions on Table XV.

When was the crucifixion? The first persecution? The tenth. When was the period of Christianity's becoming the religion of the Roman empire, and of the meeting of the Council of Nice?

When did the temporal power of the Pope begin?

When was the passion for pilgrimages at its height?
When was the Inquisition established?

When was the Bible divided into chapters?
What is the date of Wickliffe's labors? The Council of Constance?
The Reformation? The Society of Jesuits? The Grancil of Trent?
The Bartholomew massace? The Synod of Dort? The rise of the Methodists? Sunday schools? The British and Foreign Bible Society?

Table XVI.

The 16th Table exhibits a chronological view of the most important modern inventions and improvements, which are connected with the progress of the arts and sciences, and the well-being of society.

Antiquaries are not agreed with respect to whom the world is indebted

for that most important invention, the Art of Printing. The honor is claimed by three cities, Hanglem, Strasburg, and Mentz; and the persons whose names are chiefly associated with inventing and perfecting the art, are Laurens Coster, Guttenberg, Geinsfleisch, Faust, and Schoeffer. The date of the invention is commonly stated at 1440; but the first step, by the use of wooden types, was made about 1435; the second, by cut metal types, in or about 1444; the third, by cast metal types, in 1458

When was gunpowder invented? Printing? The telescope? Logarithms? The steam engine? Stereotype printing? Yaccination? The

steamboat?

What inventions or improvements took place in the 10th century? The lith? &c.

A.D.	TABLE XVIIHISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.
1600	7 Virginia settled by the English.
l:	14 New York settled by the Dutch.
	20 Massachusetts settled by English Puritans.
	23 New Hampshire settled by English Puritans.
	24 New Jersey settled by the Dutch.
	27 Delaware settled by Swedes and Fins. 30 Maine settled by the English.
	34 Maryland settled by Irish Catholics.
	35 Connecticut settled by English Puritans.
17th	36 Rhode Island settled by the English under Roger Williams.
	43 Confederation of the Colonies of New England for mutual defence.
	50 North Carolina settled by the English.
	64 New York surrendered by the Dutch to the English.
	65. The colonies of Connecticut and New Haven united. 70. South Carolina settled by the English.
- 1	82 Pennsylvania settled by English Quakers under William Penn.
. [86 New England, New York, and New Jersey, under the oppressive
	go ernment of Andros.
1700	92 The colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts-Bay united.
1700	2 East and West Jersey united, and styled New Jersey.
ŀ	33 Georgia settled by the English under General Oglethorpe.
- 1	63 Peace of Paris:—the French war ends:—Canada, &c. confirmed
ļ	to England.
	76 Declaration of the INDEPENDENCE of the United States.
18th	88, The Constitution of the United States adopted. 89 GEORGE WASHINGTON, first President of the United States.
	91 The State of Vermont admitted into the Union.
	92 The State of Kentucky admitted into the Union.
	94 Insurrection in Pennsylvania on account of duties on distilled
!	spirits.
. !	96 The State of Tennessee admitted into the Union.
	97 JOHN ADAMS, second President of the United States.
1800	98 Hostilities with France.
1000	1 THOMAS JEFFERSON, third President of the United States.
	2 The State of Ohio admitted into the Union. 3 Louisiana purchased of France by the United States.
. 1	7 General Embargo laid in all the ports of the U.S.; repealed 1809
	9 JAMES MADISON, fourth President of the United States.
	11 The State of Louisiana admitted into the Union.
	12 Declaration of War against England, June 18: ends Dec. 24, '14
	16 The State of Indiana admitted into the Union.
	17 JAMES MONROE, fifth President of the United States.
10.2	The State of Mississippi admitted into the Union.
19th	18 The State of Illinois admitted into the Union.
	19 The State of Alabama admitted into the Union. 20 The State of Maine admitted into the Union.
	21 The State of Missouri admitted into the Union.
	Fiorida ceded to the United States by Spain.
	25 JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, sixth President of the United States
	19817 he Tariff Lam enacted, imposing protecting duties on imports
	20 ANDREW JACKSON, seventh President of the United States
	32 The Legislature of South Carolina passes an act to nullify the
	laws of the United States.
	100 W of the United States, the Royk of the United
	33 The Public Deposits removed from the Bank of the United

TABLE XVIII .- EVENTS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

1765	The Stamp Act pass Resolutions against	the Stamp .	tish Parl Act pass	iament. ed by the Asse	mblies of			
"	Virginia and Massachusetts. First Colonial Congress, from nine of the Colonies, meets at New York							
cc	York.	aalad ku 4ka I	owiela D	liament				
66					nd naint			
04	Act of Parliament imposing duties on tea, paper, glass, and painters' colors.							
69	British troops arrive	e of Roston						
70	Affray between the	Rritish troops	and the	inhehitents of	Roston			
	three of the latter		and mid	; illigableaties of	D05WH,			
73	British Tea thrown		or at Ros	ton.				
	The Boston Port-B							
	First Continental C							
75	The REVOLUTIONAL	v Was herin	a hv a al	tirmish at Levin	rion.			
	Ticonderoga and C				500.01			
	Batile.				Loss.			
"	1. Bunker-Hill,	Howe,	1.054	Defeated. Prescott, .	. 453			
"	Congress meets: (HOULED ILMONIN	12 W 13 M	open commune	r-in-chief.			
"	Boston evacuated b	v the British.	and Can	ada by the Ame	ricans.			
76	Declaration of Indi	PENDENCE ;	July 4.	•				
44	2. Flatbush or } Brooklyn,	Howe, .	•	Putnam & Sulli	van,2,000			
"	3. White Plains,	Howe S	or 400	Washington	3 or 400			
66	Fort Washington o				0 01 100			
64	Gen Washington	etrests through	h N Jer	sev over the De	laware.			
**	4. Trenton, 5. Princeton, 6. Bennington, 7. Brandywine, 8. Germantown, 9. Stillwater,	Washington.	9	Rahl.	1.000			
77	5. Princeton.	Washington	100	Mawhood.	. 400			
66	6. Bennington.	Stark.	100	Baum & Brev	man: 600			
"	7. Brandywine.	Howe.	. 500	Washington.	1.000			
"	8. Germaniown.	Howe	600	Washington.	. 1.200			
66	9. Stillwater.	Gates	. 350	Burgovne	. 600			
"	Burgoyne surrende	rs to Gen. Ga	tes, at S	tratoga, with 5.7	52 men.			
"	Articles of Confeder	ution and per	petual I	Union between	the Thir-			
	teen United State							
78	Treaty of Alliance	between the U	nited St	ates and France				
"	10. Monmouth, 11. Rhode Island, 12. Briar-Creek, Charleston, S. C.,	Washington	230	Clinton, .	. 400			
"	11. Rhode Island,	Sullivan,	. 211	Pigott,	. 260			
"	12. Briar-Creek,	Prevost,	. 16	Ash, .	. 300			
80	Charleston, S. C.,	urrendered to	Sir Hen	ry Clinton.				
"	13. Camden,	Cornwallis,	325	Gates,	. 730			
"	Treachery of Arnol	d in attemptin	g to d eli	ver up West-Poi	nt.			
81	14. Cow-pens.	Morgan,	72	Tarleton, .	. 800			
"	13. Camden, Treachery of Arnol 14. Cow-pens. 15. Guilford, N. C. 16. Eut. Springs,	Cornwallis,	523	Greene, .	. 400			
"	16. Eut. Springs,	Greene,	555	Stewart, .	. 1,100			
1	HEW MOUNTING TOWER	and burnt by	AIROIG.					
	Cornwallis surrence men, the princips	d closing scen	e of the	Revolutionary V	Var.			
83	Treaty of Peace w States acknowled	ith England;	the Ind	ependence of the	ne United			

^{*} The numbers 1, 2, 3, &c. to 16, are prefixed to the places where the principal battles were fought, with the names of the victorious commanders, with their loss in killed and weended, placed on the left of the defeated commanders. The two events meet important to the American cause were the surrenders at Saratoga and Yorktown.

	TABLE XIX.—CHRONOLOGY OF IMPROVEMENTS AND EVENTS
A. D.	INDICATING THE PROGRESS OF SOCIETY.
1600	
	16 Tobacco first cultivated by the English in Virginia.
	38 Harvard College founded at Cambridge, Mass.
	39 First Printing Press in the English American Colonies, at Can
17 <i>th</i>	bridge, Mass. 48 Cambridge Platform adopted.
T 1 6/6	61 Eliot's Indian Testament (Bible in 1664) printed at Cambridge.
	93 William and Mary College founded at Williamsburg, Va.
	95 Cultivation of Rice introduced into South Carolina.
	I Population of the Colonies shout 260 000
700	1 Yale College, the third in the colonies, founded.
	4 Boston News Letter, the first American Newspaper, published.
	10 First Post Office in America, at New York.
	19 First Phi'adelphia Newspaper published.
	20 Tea begins to be used in New England.
	25 First New York Newspaper published.
	33 First lodge of Freemasons in America at Boston.
	[38] College of New Jersey founded,-Princeton.
	49 White Population of the colonies 1,046,000.
	64 First Medical School in the colonies, at Philadelphia.
	69 American Philosophical Society instituted at Philadelphia.
	74 The streets of Boston first lighted with lamps.
10.11	75 Population of the colonies about 2,600,000.
18th	75 The number of Newspapers in the colonies 37.
	80 American Academy of Arts and Sciences instituted at Boston.
	81 Bank of North America, first American bank, instituted.
	82 First American 74 gun ship built at Portsmouth, N. H.
	84 Bishop Seabury, first bishop in the United States, consecrated. 84 First American voyage to China from New York.
	90 Bishop Carroll, first Catholic Bishop in the U. S., consecrated.
	90 First Census of the U. S. taken:—Population 3,929,326.
	91 First Folio and Quarto Bibles printed, in the United States,
	Worcester, Mass.
	91 United States Mint established at Philadelphia.
	94 The Cotton-Gin invented by E. Whitney; cotton soon becom
	an important article of produce.
	96 First Turnpike corporation in Mussachusetts established.
1000	1001 71 In
1800	1 About 200 Newspapers published in the United States.
	2 Merino Skeep first imported.
ł	4 Middlesex Cunul, the first large canal, completed.
	7 Steambouts first used on the Hudson.
	8 Andover Theological Seminary, first of the kind in the Unit
	States, opened.
	10 359 newspapers published in the United States.
19th	11 First Steamboat on the Mississippi and Ohio.
	15 The American Education Society instituted.
	16 The American Bible Society instituted.
`	25 The Frie Canal completed.
	The American Temperance Society instituted.
	30 Fifth Census of the United States:—Population 12,866,029.
	32 The Ohio Canal completed. 34 Number of Newspapers published in the U. States 1,265.
i	PARTIMITIES OF 416102 habels handered in one of parties 1 1000.

TABLE XX.—Distinguished Americans.										
A. D.	Civilians.	died.	Warriors and Commanders.	died.	Divines.	died.	Miscellaneous.	ried.		
1600	John Carver	21		•	J. Robinson	25		~		
	John Smith	31			F. Higginson			- 1		
i i	Ld. Baltimore				John Harvard		-			
	J. WINTHROP				Tho. Hooker					
ŀ	Ed. Winslow W. Bradford		Mil'sStandish	E.G	Tho. Shepard	50		- 1		
17th	Theop. Eaton	57	MIII BOCKHOIRE	w	John Vorton	63	A. Hutchinson	42		
		65					W. Brewster			
1	C. Calvert	7o	John Mason	73	J. Davenport	70	N. Ward	53		
	Philip, <i>King</i> , SirW.Berk'l'y	76			Ch. Chauncy	72	E. Johnson	72		
1					Urian Oakes	81	N. Morton 8	35		
1			Jos. Winslow	80				37		
1700	Sir W. Phips			_	John Eliot			37		
1.00	Sirea.Andros	14	Benj. Church	18	Sam. Willard	7	Wm. Hubbard	4		
	Wm. Penn	18	SirWPep'erell	59 ~~	Incr. Mather	23	R. Beverly	17		
1	Wm. Burnet	29 71	Jos. Warren	70 75	Cott'n Mathe	120	J. Callender	48		
1	J. Quincy	75	R.Montg'm'ry John Thomas	76 76	Reni Colman	47	Wm Stith	49 50		
1		75	Hugh Mercer	77	D. Brainerd	47	James Logan			
ł	P. Livingston	78	Dav. Wooster	77	J. EDWARDS	58	Z. Boylston	66		
1			Count Pulaski					72		
	James Otis		Charles Lee			61	J. Clayton ?	73		
18th	W. Livingstor	190	Lord Stirling	83	G. Tennent	64	Cadw. Colden			
1	Jas. Bowdoin	90	Nat'l Greene	86	Jon. Mayhew	66	J. Bartram	77		
1	Hen. Laurens	.02	Ethan Allen	OU OO	Tho. Clap	07	T.Hutchinson 8 Jona. Carver 8	50		
l	Rog Sherman	193	Rer'n Steuben	gu Qu	Ch Channey	87	Ant. Benezet	DU I		
1	Arthur Lee	94	John Sullivan	95	Mather Byles	88	J. Ledvard	89		
l	R. H. Lee		Fran.Marion				B. FRANKLIN			
Į.	Patrick Henry						F. Hopkinson			
Ì	WASHINGTON				Ezra Stiles		D.Ritt'nhouse!			
1800	J. Rutledge		Art. Ward		John Clarke		Jer. Belknap	98		
1200	Sam. Adams		Phil. Schuyler				G. R. Minot	2		
ŀ	A. Hamilton		Wm. Moultrie				R. Morris	6		
j	Geo. Wythe		Henry Knox		S. Hopkins	3	J. Dickinson	8		
1	O. Ellsworth Fisher Ames		Horatio Gates Edw. Preble	U	J. B. Linn		Ch. B. Brown Joel Barlow			
1	The. Parsons			2	Buckminster Abp. Carroll			12 13		
ŀ	Sam. Dexter	15	Benj. Lincoln	10	Muhlenberg		Co'ntR'mford			
1		15	James Clinton	12	Bp. Dehon			15		
	Caleb Strong	20	Z. M. Pike	13	T. Dwight			15		
	Eli. Boudinot	21	J. Lawrence		S. S. Smith			12		
19th	W. Pinkney	22	Wm. Heath		J. Appleton		Dav. Ramsay			
	Geo. Cabot		Art. St. Clair					15		
1	C.C.Pinckney				B. Trumbull S. Worcester	20	CasparWistar			
	JOHN ADAMS T. JEFFERSON				Heckewelder			20 25		
1	Rufus King				Jed. Morse	26	L. Murray	න 26		
			J. Wilkinson					28		
	John Jay	29	Macdonough	25	J. M. Mason			30		
			Th. Pinckney				Isai. Thomas			
1			Jacob Brown					31		
L	Ch. Carroll	32	Th. Sumter	<i>5</i> 2	J. H. Rice	31	S. L. Mitchell	31		

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REMARKS AND QUESTIONS.

Table XVII.

The 17th Table contains a chronological view of the principal events in the history of this country during its colonial dependence on Great Britain, and also since the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

Questions.

Which were some of the first settled colonies?

When was Virginia settled? New York? &c.

When was the Peace of Paris, and the end of the French war?

When the Declaration of Independence? When peace with England? When was the Constitution adopted? Who was the first President of the United States? The 2d? &c.

When did Washington become President? Adams? &c.

Table XVIII.

The 18th Table exhibits a chronological view of the principal battles and other most important events, during the contest between this country and Great Britain, from the passing of the Stamp Act to the establishment of peace with England, when the independence of the United States was acknowledged.

Questions.

When was the Stamp Act passed? What other events took place before the first Continental Congress met? What warlike events took place before the Declaration of Independence? What battles were fought in 1776? In 1777? In 1778? In 1780? In 1781? When was the surrender at Saratoga? At Yorktown? When peace with England?

Table XIX.

This Table exhibits a chronological view of improvements and events indicating the progress of society in this country, both before and since the Declaration of Independence.

What colleges were first founded?

When was printing introduced? When and where the first news paper published?

When and where the first medical school? &c.

- Table XX.

The 20th Table contains the names of many of the mest distinguish ed Americans. The names of no persons who are still tiving are here enumerated. Most of those belonging to the 17th century, were born in England. Count Rumford, a distinguished natural philosopher,

Copley and West, eminent painters, and Lindley Murray, a learned grammarian, though natives of this country, passed a great part of their lives, and produced most of their works, in Europe.

Some, who are classed as warriors, were also known as statesmen; and some, classed as statesmen, were likewise distinguished as military commanders; as Washington, who was "first in war and first in

peace."

Dr. Franklin, the most celebrated philosopher that America has produced, and distinguished particularly for his discoveries in electricity, was also an eminent statesman. Alexander Hamilton was the first Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, and the founder of the American system of finance.

Ward, Hubbard, Stith, Callender and Belknap, classed in the 4th column, were clergymen; yet they are most known by works which are not theological, as also are Prince, Muhlenberg, Trumbull, and Morse.

Eliot and Brainerd were distinguished as missionaries among the Indians; and the first Edwards is esteemed the greatest metaphysical

divine that America has produced.

Of the persons enumerated in the fourth column, some were histo-

rians, physicians, men of science, poets, artists, &c.

Within the last twenty or thirty years, much progress has been made in this country with respect to education and encouragement to learning; and there has also been a vast increase in the amount of original publications; America, however, can yet boast of but few illustrious names in literature, or the arts and sciences.

Questions.

Who are some of the statesmen and civilians that flourished in the 17th century? In the 18th? In the 19th?

Who are some of the warriors that flourished in the 17th century?

QUESTIONS.

N. B. The numbers profixed to the following Questions correspond to the paragraphs as the Volume; so that the student will readily see where to seek for every ensurer. Rewell be perceived that, in many instances, the ensurers to three or four questions are to be found in one paragraph.

USES OF HISTORY.

1. What is history? What is said of the study of it?
2. What is said of history, compared with novels and romances?

3. On what is the general taste for history founded? What view does it afford of human nature?

4. What is a higher use of history? What has it been styled?

What does it add to our own experience?

5. With what does it make us acquainted? From what does it serve to free the mind?

6. To what class of persons is history indispensable? Of what do

we gain a knowledge by history?

7. What further does history show and teach us? 8. What influence has it on the character? How does it make wirtue appear,-and vice? What does the reader of history learn to connect with true glory?

9. What does history teach us has been often done under the direc-

tion of Providence?

10. Why does a knowledge of history tend to render us contented with our condition in life?

THE SOURCES OF HISTORY.

1. What is the first source of history? Who derived his history

chiefly from this source?

2. What is the second source? What instances are mentioned?

3. What is the third source? 4. The fourth? 5. The fifth? 6. The

sixth? To what century do the most ancient coins that have been found belong?

7. What is the seventh source of history? What is the most cele-

brated collection of marbles of this kind?

8. What is the most important of these inscriptions? What is said of it?

DIVISIONS OF HISTORY.

1. How is history divided with respect to time?

- What is Ancient History? Modern History?
 What other eras do some historians adopt for the dividing points?
 What is a third division of history? What does this period comprise?
 - 5. What is said further of the Middle Ages?
 6. By what is Ancient History distinguished?
 - 7. By what are the Middle Ages characterized? 8. By what is Modern History distinguished?
 - 9. How is history divided with regard to subject?

10. What is Sacred History? Profane History? Ecclesiastical

History? Civil History?

11. How far back does Sacred History go, and what was the length of time from the creation to the Christian era?

12. Who is the earliest profane historian? When did he write, and

of what nations?

13. What is said of the history of the world before the time when the history of Herodotus begins

14. What is said of our knowledge of the early history of the world?

What is the only source of this information?

15. What are some of the most remarkable events respecting the early history of the world recorded in the Bible?

16. What are the most important portions of profane history?

17. What is said of the history of the Middle or Dark Ages?

18. What portions of history are the best known?

EGYPT.

1. Why does Egypt hold a conspicuous place in history? What nation derived its information chiefly from it?

2. What is said of the ancient history of Egypt?

3. What are some of the works of ancient grandeur?4. What is said of the glory of Thebes?5. What city supplanted Thebes? What is said of the description given of Thebes by Strabo and Diodorus?

6. How was the place of alphabetic writing supplied?

7. What nations did the Egyptians resemble? What was their form of government?

8. To what was every person subjected after his death?9. Who founded the Egyptian monarchy? What race of kings

followed?

10. Were the Egyptians a warlike nation? What king of Egypt was a great conqueror? What is said of him?

11. Who is the next distinguished sovereign? What is said of him?

12. Who conquered Egypt, 525 B. C.? In what manner?

13. By whom was it wrested from Persia? What was its situation after the death of Alexander?

THE PHŒNICIANS.

 What is said of the Phœnicians and their history?
 What are they styled in the Scriptures, and what were their chief cities?

 Of what were they the reputed inventors?
 To what places did they send colonies? By whom did Tyre suffer memorable sieges?

ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

1. What is said of Assyria? Who founded Babylon? What is said of their history?

2. What is commonly supposed respecting Assyria and Babylon?

What is the opinion of Dr. Gillies? What is said of Ninus and Semiramis?

3. How is Ninus represented? How is Semiramis described?

4. What is said of the history of the empire from the time of Ninyas to Sardanapalus?

5. What is said of Sardanapalus? Who excited a rebellion against

- him?
 - 6. What took place with regard to the empire?7. Who were the four successors of Pul?8. Who put an end to the Assyrian monarchy?

9. By whom was Nabopolassar or Nebuchadnezzar succeeded?

10. What took place during the reign of Belshazzar?

PERSIA.

- 1. What is said of Persia? What is the state of its history prior to 1. What is said of Persia? What is the state of its history prior to the reign of Cyrus? What was it originally called? Who was the founder of the great Persian empire? What countries did it comprise?

 2. To whom are we indebted for the history of Persia? What is said of the Persian historians? Which are entitled to most credit?

 3. What is said of Cyrus? What did he perform?

 4. What ancients have written accounts of Cyrus? Who have fol

lowed Xenophon? What was Xenophon's supposed design?
5. What is said of Cambyses? Of Smerdis? Darius?
6. Who succeeded Darius? What is said of him? To whom did he leave the empire?

7 Who were the other two principal sovereigns?

GREECE.

SECTION I.

1. What was the extent of Greece? How was it bounded? What

is its general aspect?
2. What is said of this country? For what were the inhabitants

renowned?

3. What did Greece comprise? How did these states differ? How were they united?

4. What was the form of government in the early ages? What

form afterwards prevailed?

5. What is said of the history of these republics? Why does thei

history excite interest?
6. What were Greece and the inhabitants called by the natives?
What do the poets style the Greeks? From whom were the original inhabitants descended?

7. Who brought to Greece the first rudiments of civilization?

SECTION II.

1. Into how many general periods may the history of Greece be distinguished? What is the first? What the second?

2. How many years does the first period comprise? What is said of it?

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3. Into how many subdivisions may this period be distinguished? When does the first period begin and end, and what may 't be termed? The second? The third? The fourth?

4. What does the second general division (the period of authentic

history) comprise? What is said of its history?

5. Into how many parts may this period be divided? When does the first begin and end, and what is said of it? The second? The taird? The fourth?

SECTION III.

1. What does the fabulous age comprise?

2. By whom was Sicyon founded? Argos? Athens? Thebes? Corinth? Mycenæ? Lacedæmon?

3. What are some of the memorable events of this period? What

else does it embrace?

4. What was the first great enterprise recorded of the Greeks? By whom was it commanded? Who were some of the heroes who accompanied Jason?

5. Why were they called Argonauts? What was their object?

What is said of the fleece?

SECTION IV.

1. To what has the heroic age been compared? What difference is mentioned between the Greeks and the Gothic nations?

2. On whose authority does the history of the Trojan war rest? What

's said of the Iliad?

3 What is said of Helen? To what oath did her father bind her suitors? Who was the favored individual?

4. What is said of Paris? What did he do on visiting Sparta?

5. What was the effect of this treachery? How many vessels and men were conveyed to the Trojan coast? Who was chosen commander-in-chief? Who were some of the other most celebrated princes?

6. By whom were the Trojans commanded? What was the final

result of the siege?

7. When did the return of the Heraclidæ take place?

8. What is said of Hercules? How long was it after his banishment when his descendants returned? What was the consequence of it?

9. What was the effect of this revolution?

SECTION V.

1. What were the two leading states of Greece, and how were they distinguished? How were their different characters formed?

2. Of what was Sparta the capital? How was the government administered?

3. Who was Lycurgus? With what duty was he intrusted?

4. What did he accomplish? What senate did he institute? What did he do respecting the two kings? How did he divide the territory?

5. What measure did he take respecting commerce, &c.? How did

the citizens take their food?

6. What was the situation of every citizen? What was the regulation respecting infants?

7. What was the fact respecting letters? How were the Spartans

distinguished? For what were they noted?

8. What were the young especially taught? What further regula

tions were made respecting them?

9. What were the institutions of Lycurgus adapted to form? What was considered the great business of life? What virtues were cherished, and what were sacrificed?

10. What is said of the women? What was their education calcula

ted to give them? What charge did a mother give her son?

11. How long did the institutions of Lycurgus continue in force? What is said of the power and influence of Sparta?

12. What took place in process of time? How were changes introduced?

SECTION VI.

1. What is said of Athens? For what was it distinguished?

2. Who was the last king of Athens? What took place after his death? What is said of the office of the archons?

3. By whom was the first code of written laws prepared for Athens? What is said of these laws? What reason did Draco give for the severity of his punishments?

4. Who afterwards framed a new system of laws? What did Solon

attempt to do? What did he say of his laws?

5. In whom did he vest the supreme power? What was done by

this assembly? Of what number did the senate consist?
6. What did he encourage? What further is said respecting his laws?

7. What effects did the different laws of Athens and Sparta produce? What were the differences at the two cities? How were an Athenian and a Spartan characterized? 8. What happened before the death of Solon? How long did Pisis-

tratus and his sons continue in power? What is said of his govern-

9. To whom did Pisistratus transmit the sovereignty? By whom were they dethroned? What was their fate?

SECTION VII.

1. What period is esteemed the most glorious age of Greece? What is said of the victories of the inhabitants over the Persians?

2. What was the state of Persia at this period? What colonies and

countries were subject to it?

3. What gave offence to Darius? What did he resolve to do?

4. What step did Darius first take? How were his heralds received: 5. How did Darius begin his hostile attack? What was the fate of the first Persian fleet? What was done by a second fleet? How numerous was the army that invaded Attica? By whom was it commanded?

6. Where and by whom was this host met? What was the loss on

each side?

7. How was the merit of Miltiades repaid? What happened to him?

8. What were the parties into which the Athenians were divided? Who were the two leaders?

9. What is said of Aristides? What happened while the people were giving their votes for his exile? What did Aristides do?

10. What caused a discontinuance of the Persian war? By whom

was it renewed? How large an army is Xerxes said to have collect-

11. Of what did his fleet consist? What canal and bridges were formed?

12. Why did Xerxes shed tears on viewing the vast assemblage? 13. What course was taken by the Persians? Who was leader or

Athens? What states took part with Athens?

14. What did Leonidas undertake? What reply did he give to the herald of Xerxes, who commanded him to deliver up his arms? What followed?

15. What course did Leonidas take? What was the result? What

inscription was written on the monument erected on the spot?

16. What did the Persians now do? What course did the Athenians

17. For what were preparations now made? Of what did the two fleets consist? Who commanded the Grecian fleet? Where did the engagement take place? What was the issue?

18. Who was left by Xerxes to complete the conquest of Greece? Where and by whom was this army met? What was the issue?

19. What took place on the same day of the victory of Platea? What

happened to Xerxes? 20. What course did the Greeks pursue? By whom were the Spartans and Athenians commanded? What did they accomplish?

21. What is related of Pausanias?
22. What is related of Themistocles?

23. Who took the direction of affairs in Athens after the banishment of Themistocles?

24. What victories did Cimon gain?
25. What afterwards happened to Cimon? Who succeeded him? 26. What further is related of Cimon?

27. How long did the Persian war last? What were the conditions of peace?
28. What took place after the death of Cimon?

29. What is said of the government of Pericles?
30. What is said of the time of the Persian war? What took place after the war with Persia? What is related of Athens and Sparta?

31. What was the effect of the war on the Athenians? By what means did they reach the summit of political influence and military

32. On what did the politics of Greece after this turn? What is

said of Athens and Sparta, and how did they differ?

33. What took place from this period? What was the effect of an acquaintance with Asia? How was this luxurious spirit directed by the Athenians?

SECTION VIII.

What was the origin of the Peloponnesian war?
 What is said of this war? How was it carried on?

3. Of what were the Athenians accused?

4. What state took the lead? By what states was she joined What allies had Athens? What did the forces of each amount to?

5. What was done in the first year of the war? What took place in the second year? Was the war arrested by the plague?

6. Who governed Athens after the death of Pericles? What is

said of Cleon? What happened after his death?

7. What is said of Alcibiades?
8. Who commanded the expedition against Sicily? What was the issue of it?

9. What is said of Lysander? What was next done by the Lacedæmonians?

10. On what conditions were the Athenians spared? How did the

Peloponnesian war terminate?

11. What did Lysander do after the reduction of Athens? How many citizens did the thirty tyrants sacrifice in the space of six months? What was done by Thrasybulus?
12. What is said of pure democracy at Athens? How were the

Athenians characterized?

13. Who is at once the glory and the reproach of Athens? What is said of this philosopher?

14. What is related of him during his imprisonment?

15. What is said of the philosophy of Socrates? What did he de respecting philosophy?

16. In what contest were upwards of 10,000 Greek mercenaries employed? Who commanded the Greeks in their retreat?

17. What is said of this retreat?

- 18. How did the Spartans become involved in the war? What did the king of Persia effect by means of bribes? What course did Agesilaus take?
 - 19. How was the war ended? What were the conditions of peace?

20. What state now rose into importance? What was done by the Spartans? By whom was the citadel recovered?

21. What then ensued? What were the losses of each in the battle

of Leuctra? 22. What was then done by the Thebans? How long had it been

since the country of Laconia had been ravaged?

23. What course did the Thelan commander then take? What other victory did he gain?

24. What is said of Epaminondas?

25. By what was the battle of Mantinea followed? In what did the Spartans next engage? What was the issue?

SECTION IX.

1. What is said of the history of Greece after the death of Agesilaus? What was the situation of the Grecian affairs?

2. What is said of Athens at this time? What of Sparta? What

project did Philip form?

3. What is said of the kingdom of Macedon? Who were the inhabitants?

4. What is said of the Macedonian empire? Why is it sometimes

called the Grocian empire?

- 5. Under whom was Philip educated? What is further said of him? What measures did he adopt to bring the states of Greece under his lominion?
- 6. What was the cause of the Sacred War? What states took part in the contest?

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7. What course did Philip adopt? What was he styled? What

part did the Athenians adopt?

8. What circumstance again drew Philip into Greece? What was the occasion of it? What states resisted Philip? What was the result of the contest?

What measures did the conqueror adopt?

10. What did Philip next project? What happened to him?
11. By whom was Philip succeeded? What is said of Alexander?
12. What was done by Demosthenes? What course did Alexander take? What was the fate of the Thebans? What was the effect of these acts?

13. What were Alexander's next measures? Who were his com-

panions in arms?

14. With what force did he cross the Hellespont? To what place did he first proceed? What did he say respecting Achilles?

15. What is related respecting Darius Codomanus? What were the losses on each side in the battle of the Granicus? What is here mentioned respecting Alexander?

16. What were the consequences of this victory?
17. What battle was fought in the next spring? What was the number of the Persian army? What were the losses? Where did the engagement take place?

18. Who fell into the hands of the conqueror? What offer did Da-

rius make Alexander, in consequence of his generous conduct?

19. What did Parmenio say of the offer? What was Alexander's reply? What answer did he return to the proposal?

20. What was his next course? What was the consequence of the Tyrians refusing his demand? What piece of cruelty did he exercise?

21. What was his next exploit?
22. Whither did he then proceed? What did he accomplish? What city did he found?

23. What proposal did he receive from Darius on his return?

answer did he return?

24. With how large an army did he cross the Euphrates? What losses were sustained in the battle that followed? Where was this battle fought, and what is it called?

25. What was the consequence of this battle? What has since been the fact with regard to Europe? What happened to Darius and the

empire?

- 26. What was Alexander's next procedure? What course did his soldiers take?
- 27. To what city did Alexander then march his army? What did he do here? Where and in what manner did he die?

28. What is said of Alexander and his course?
29. What is said of his abilities and traits of character?
30. For what was he distinguished in the early part of his career What afterwards took place?
31. Of what acts of ingratitude and injustice was he guilty?

32. What does his history show?

SECTION X.

1. What did Alexander do respecting a successor! By what was his death followed?

2 Who was appointed by his generals? How was the empire di

vided? What followed? What was the new division after the battle of Ipsus?

3. What was the end of the kingdoms of Thrace and Macedonia?

What is said of Syria and Egypt?

4. What was done by the Grecian states during Alexander's conouests?

5. What effect did the news of Alexander's death have at Athens? By whom was Demosthenes opposed? What was the language of

-6. How far did the counsels of Demosthenes prevail? What was the fate of Demosthenes?

7. By whom was Antipater succeeded? What took place at Athons? What is related of Phocion?

8. By whom was Polysperchon succeeded? What is said of the government of Demetrius Phalereus?

9. What was the state of Athens afterwards?

10. What was the condition of the Grecian states from this period? By whom was the country ravaged?

11. Who next invaded Peloponnesus? What happened to him?

12. By what confederacy was the last effort made in favor of Greece? To whom was the government of this confederacy committed? What design did he form?

13. By whom was Aratus succeeded? What is said of bim?

14. What is related of the Romans? What was accompled by their army under Quintius Flaminius? What took place nearly thirty years afterwards?

15. What part did the Romans take, with respect to the Achean league? Who sought the assistance of the Romans? What was done by Metellus? What afterwards took place?

16. What is said of Greece after she became subject to the Romans?

Where were the most distinguished Remans educated?

17. What do we see in reviewing the history of the Greeks?

what were they unrivalled?

18. What circumstance must impress the readers of the history of Athens? Who were victims of this injustice? What was done respecting them?

19. What is said respecting the supposed virtuous age of Greece?

What is said of the morality of the Greeks?

20. What is stated by Mitford:
21. How were the earlier times characterized? How was it in a later age? What had the history of the world demonstrated?

Section XI .- Grecian Antiquities.

What is said of the Ionic sect? The Italian or Pythagorean sect? The Socratic School? The Cynics? The Academic sect? The Peripatetic sect? The Skeptical sect? The Stoic sect? The Epicureans?

What does Tytler say respecting the Greek philosophy?

course did its teachers pursue?

Who were the seven wise men of Greece?

By where is the council of the Amphictyons supposed to have been

instituted? Of what was it composed? Of how many deputies did it consist? When and where did they meut?

What were the objects of this assembly?

On what occasions were the Greeks in the habit of consulting oracles? What were their most celebrated oracles?

What were the four public games in Greece? What exercises were

practised at these games?

What is said of running, leaping, and boxing?

In honor of whom were the Olympic games instituted? Where and when were they celebrated? What did they draw together? What preparation was required?

What oath were the contenders obliged to take? What was the prize bestowed on the victor? What is said of it? How was the

victor treated?

How did the Greeks compute their time?

What is said of the Pythian games? With what were the victors

Where and how often were the Nemean games celebrated? With

what were the victors crowned?

Why were the Isthmian games so called? What is said of them? What was the reward of the victors?

Into what classes were the inhabitants of Athens divided?
Who were the citizens? Into how many tribes were they divided? What is said of the privilege of citizenship?

What was the condition of the sojourners?

What is said of the slaves or servants?

What is said of the sizes of solvance.

In what was the supreme executive power vested? What garlands

About was the first of the nine called? What was did they wear? What was the first of the nine called? his office? For what crime was he punished with death?

What were the duties of the second archon? What did the third

archon superintend?

What were the duties of six other archons?

Into what three sorts were the Athenian magistrates divided?

What rights had the poor citizens? What were the candidates for office obliged to do? To what were the magistrates liable while in office? What were they obliged to do after their office had expired?

Of whom were the assemblies of the people composed? How often

and where were they held?

Of how many citizens must the assembly consist, in order to transact business? How was the decision made?

How often was the senate elected, and of how many did it consist?

What were the duties of the senate?

From what was the name of Areopagus taken? What is said of

this court? Of what were the Areopagites guardians?

What is said of the ostracism? Was it necessary that any crime should be alleged against the exile? What is remarked of this institution?

Of what two classes did the inhabitants of Sparta consist?

Into what two classes were the citizens divided?

Which were the more numerous, the slaves or the freemen? What did the slaves perform?

What were the two chief magistrates? What were their duties?

Of what did the senate consist? What was its authority? Who were admitted to this assembly?

What were the Ephori? What was their duty?

What wore the two public assemblies of Sparta? When was the general assembly convened? When and for what purposes was the lesser assembly held?

SYRIA UNDER THE SELEUCIDAE.

1. Who obtained possession of the principal possessions of Alexander in Asia, after his death? Who defeated Antigonus? How long did the kingdom of Syria or Syro-Media tast? By what kings was it governed?

2. What is said of Seleucus and his exploits? What is said of

Antioch?

3. What was the end of Seleucus? By whom was he succeeded?
4. What is said of the reigns of Antiochus Theos and Seleucus

Callinicus?

5. Who was one of the most distinguished of this race of sovereigns? What is related of his reign?

6. By whom was Antiochus visited? What did he undertake? By

whom and where was he defeated?

7. Who were the next two kings? What was done by the latter? What did the Jews perform?

8. What is said of the succeeding reigns?

EGYPT UNDER THE PTOLEMIES.

1. What is said of the prosperity of Egypt? How long did the dynasty of the Ptolemies last?

2. Who was Ptolemy Lagus? What is said of his history and his

abilities?

3. What important public services did he perform?

4. By whom was Ptolemy Soter succeeded? What is related of Ptolemy Philadelphus? What is said of his court? What celebrated version was made during his reign?

5. What is said of Ptolemy Evergetes? With what did his reign

commence? What vow was made by his queen?

6. How was the hair regarded? What is said of that of Berenice? What took place respecting it?

7. By whom was Ptolemy Evergetes succeeded? For what was his reign distinguished? What excited his resentment against the Jews? 8. What decree did he publish? What effect did it produce? What did he then command? What was the consequence?

9. What is said of the first three Ptolemies? What of the others?

10. Why was Ptolemy Soter so named? Ptolemy Philadelphus? Ptolemy Evergetes? Ptolemy Philopater? Ptolemy Epiphanes? &c. 11. Who was the last of the Ptolemies? Who was his queen? With whom is her history connected? What was the manner of her death? What was the condition of Egypt afterwards?

12. What is related respecting the queens of the Ptolemies?

ROME.

SECTION I.

1. What state becomes the leading object of attention, after the conquest of Greece? What is said of its rise and importance? What is remarked of its history? What is involved in its history?

2. What was its extent during its early history? What change

afterwards took place? How long did the empire continue?

3. What is said of the early history of the Romans? What reasons

are there for supposing there must be a mixture of fiction?

4. How is the length of time comprised in the reigns of the seven kings regarded? What happened to several of these kings? What was the average length of their reigns?

5. What is remarked respecting the histories of the early ages? 6. What account do the poets give of Æneas? How long was the

succession continued in his family?

- 7. Of whom was Rhea Sylvia the mother? What is related of the What did Romulus do after he had built the city of brothers? R. me?
- 8. How is Romulus said to have divided the people? Of how many members did the senate consist? From whom were they chosen? How did he attach the two classes to each other? What duties did the patron and client perform to each other?

9. By what persons was the king attended?
10. Who was the second king of Rome? Of what town was he a native? How is he represented? What did he do?

11. Who was the third king? For what is his reign memorable? What was the issue of this combat?

12. Who was the fourth king? What did he do?

13. Who was the successor of Ancus Martius? What was done by him?

14. What is related of Servius Tullius? What did he establish?

By what was the census closed?

15. What were the characters of the two daughters of Servius? What measure did he take with regard to them, in order to secure the throne? How did he attempt to correct their defects? What was the issue?

16. How did Tarquin the Proud begin his reign? What was the consequence? What is related of Sextus? What course did Lucre-

tia tako?

17. What measures were taken to excite the indignation of the people against the Tarquins? What was done with Tarquin?

SECTION II.

1. What government was established instead of the regal authority. To whom did the supreme power belong? What two new officers were chosen? What is said of their power? Who were the first

2. What measures were taken by Tarquin? What partisans had he in Rome? In what plot were the sons of Brutus concerned? What course did Brutus take? What remark is made by an ancient author upon his conduct?

3. What took place after the insurrection in the city was suppressed? What notice was taken of the death of Brutus? Who was the first that enjoyed the reward of a triumph?

4. What course did Valerius adopt to regain his popularity? What

was the effect of this law?

5 How long were the Romans involved in hostilities on account of Tarquin? What was the most remarkable of these wars? Who distinguished themselves in it?

6. What other troubles were added to those of war? What course did the plebeians take? Why was the authority of the consuls of m

avail?

7. What new magistrate was now created? In what cases was he appointed? What was his authority? Who was chosen dictator? What was the issue? What other occasion was there for a dictator?

8. What troubles followed after the return of peace? What course did the plebeians adopt on an alarm of war? What was their language?

What step did they at length take?

9. What was the consequence of this procedure? What was done by Menenius Agrippa? What was granted to the plebeians? How often were tribunes elected, and what was their number? What two other magistrates were appointed?

1.). What did a neglect of agriculture occasion? In what manner did Coriolanus excite the resentment of the people? What was the

consequence?

11. What law was proposed that caused dissension? Who demanded such a division of the public lands?

12. What was the law which Volero caused to be enacted: What was the effect of this law?

13. What is related of Cincinnatus? What did he do after his vic-

tories? 14. What was the fact respecting the laws of the Romans? Who administered justice? What is said of their proceedings? What measures

were taken to provide a code? 15. For what were the decemvirs appointed? Of what statutes was

this the origin?

16. With what were the decemvirs invested? How did they govern? What caused a termination of the office?

17. What was one of the crimes of Appius Claudius? What was

the other?

18. What decree did he pronounce? What was done by Virginius? What was the effect? What took place respecting the decemvirs and decemvirate?

SECTION III.

1. What were the barriers which still separated the patricians and plebeians? Which was repealed?, What was the effect?

2. What officers were chosen instead of consuls? Did this institu-

tion continue long?

3. What was prevented by the disorders of the republic? What officers were appointed to remedy this neglect? What was their duty? What is said of this office?

4 What practice was introduced to avoid the evils arising from the

people's refusing to enlist in the army? What changes took place after this?

5. What decree was made respecting Veii? What followed?

6. How did Camillus proceed? How was he rewarded?

7. What is related of the Gauls? In what did they engage? What reply did Brennus make to the ambassadors from the senate? What did Brennus do in consequence of the ambassadors' having assisted the inhabitants of Clusium?

8. What steps did the Gauls take after the battle of Allia? What en-

terprise did a body of Gauls perform? What was the issue?

9. On what condition did the Gauls agree to quit the city? What was done by Camillus?

10. What afterwards happened to Manlius?

11. Against whom did the Romans next turn their arms? How long did this contest last, and how was it carried on? What disgrace did the Samnites cause the Romans to undergo? What was the effect?

12. What war broke out during the consulship of Torquatus Man-

lius? What is related respecting the son of Manlius?

13. What course did the Tarentines take? With how large an army did Pyrrhus land? What was the issue of the battle? What exclamation did Pyrrhus make?

14. What generous conduct is related of Fabricius? What effect did

this have on Pyrrhus?

15. What course die Pyrrhus afterwards take? Of what did the Romans now become masters?

SECTION IV.

1. With what states does the history of Rome now become connected?

2. By whom was Carthage founded? What was the government?

What was the religion?

3. What was the situation of Carthage in the time of the Punic wars? What had it under its dominion? What is said of the character of the Carthaginians?

4. Did Carthage produce many philosophers? What generals did it

produce?

5. By whom was Sicily colonized? What is said of Syracuse? How

was it governed?
6. What is said of Gelon and his successors? By whom was the regal government restored? By whom was Dionysius the Younger dethroned?

SECTION V.

1. What were the Romans desirous of, after having become masters of all Lower Italy? What conquests had they not yet made? What is said of Carthage? How are the Carthaginians and Romans compared?

2. How was the first Punic war brought on? What was the object

of both parties?

3. What course did the Romans take? What was their success?

What part did the Syracusans act?

4. What further advantages did the Romans gain? What course was adopted by Regulus? What was the issue? What is further related of Regulus?

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5. What was the final issue of the war? To what terms did the Carthaginians agree? What was the state of Sicily and Syracuse? What conquest did the Romans next make?

6. How long did peace last? How long was it since the temple of

Janus had been shut?

7. What is said of Hamilcar? What of Hannibal? How did Hannibal

commence the second Punic war?

8. What design did Hannibal now form and execute? What is said of the victory of Cannæ, and of the losses of the Romans?

9. For what has Hannibal been censured?

10. By whose counsels were the Romans now guided? What were Fabius and Marcellus styled? What was the subsequent fortune of Hannibal?

11. What is related respecting Syracuse? What did it now become?

What was the fate of the Carthaginians under Asdrubal?

12. What was done by Scipio the Younger? What course did the Carthaginians adopt? What engagement followed? What were the conditions of peace? How long did the war continue?

13. Where did Hannibal pass the rest of his life? With whom did he hold friendly conversations? What reply did he make to the question,

whom he thought the greatest general?

14. How did the first Macedonian war terminate? What victory did the Roman army under Scipio Asiaticus gain? How did the second Macedonian war terminate?

15. What was the pretext with the Romans for commencing the

third Punic war? What is stated of Porcius Cato?

16. What was offered on the part of the Carthaginians? What did the Romans require of them? How was the demand received?

17. What was the duration and issue of the siege? What is related

respecting the destruction of the city?

18. By what other event was the same year signalized? What other conquest did the Romans soon after make

SCETION VI.

1. How had the Romans been hitherto characterized? What changes were now introduced?

2. What was now the condition of Rome? What took place after

there ceased to be danger from a foreign enemy?

3. What is related of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus? What did Tiberius attempt? What was the issue?

4. What is related of his brother Caius?5. How did Jugurtha attempt to obtain the crown of Numidia? What were his further proceedings?
6. Who commanded the Roman army in the war against Jugurtha

What was the issue? What victory did Marius afterwards gain?

7. What gave rise to the Social war? How many men were destroyed in it? How was it ended?

8. What design did Mithridates form? How did he begin the Mithridatic war? What Romans bore a distinguished part in it?

9. What is related respecting Sylla? What of his rival Marius? 10. What course did Sylla take? What became of Marius? What was performed by Cinna? What is further related of Marius and Cinna?

11. What was done by Sylla after returning from his campaign? 31

How did he proceed after he had wreaked his vengeance on his ene mies? What epitaph did he write for himself? How many were slain in the civil war between Sylla and Marius?

12. What took place after the death of Sylla? By whom was the

party of Marius supported?

13. By what war was Rome next harassed? What was its termina

14 What took place a few years after the defeat of Spartacus?

What plan was concerted? 15. By whom was this conspiracy detected and crushed? How was it ended?

SECTION VII.

1. Why was Pompey surnamed the Great? What did he perform

How was he received on returning to Rome?

2. Who were now the most considerable men in Rome? What is related of Julius Cæsar? What was done by Pompey, Crassus, and Casar?

3. How did they distribute the provinces? What was the course of Crassus? What took place with regard to Cæsar and Pompey?

4. What course did Cesar take after the division of the provinces? What is said of his career? How did he continue to give a color of

justice and humanity to his operations? What did he acquire?

5. What is related of l'ompey? What took place when the term of Cæsar's government was about to expire? What then followed?

Who were friends of Pompey? Who were on the side of Cæsar?

6. What preparations had Pompey made? What reply did he make

when asked with what troops he expected to oppose Cesar?

7. What course did Cesar adopt? What river formed the limits of his command? What did he do on arriving at the banks of this river?

8. What effect did the news of this movement have at Rome?

What course did Pompey adopt? By whom was he followed?

9. What success did Cæsar meet with? For what purpose did he say that he had entered Italy? What was his next course?

10. What part did the monarchs of the East take? By whom was

Pompey joined?
11. What were Casar's movements after staying cleven days at Rome? What is said of the importance of the contest?

12. What force had each of the parties? What was the feeling on the side of Pompey? What was the issue of the engagement?

13. What acts of clemency did Cæsar perform? What is related of him on viewing the field of battle?

14. What is related of the course and fate of Pompey? What inscription was placed over his ashes? What anecdote is related respecting Cæsar?

15. By whom was the throne of Egypt now possessed? What is mentioned respecting Cleopatra? What war ensued? What called Cæsar away from Egypt? How did Cæsar express the rapidity of his victory over Pharnaces?

16. What was Cæsar's next proceeding? Over whom did he gain a victory at Thapsus in Africa? What is related of Cato?

17. What triumph did Cesar celebrate on returning to Rome? What else did he do to please the army and people? What effect did these acts produce on the multitude and senate?

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18. What expedition was he next obliged to undertake? What was the issue?

19. How did he use his power after having subdued all who opposed his usurpation? What did he say respecting his designs? How did

he proceed, and what did he perform?

20. What rumor was circulated respecting Cæsar's designs? What is said of the feelings of the people? What design was formed against him? What is said of Brutus and of Cassius?

21. What time did the conspirators fix upon for executing their designs? How did he defend himself, and what was the result? What

particulars are mentioned respecting his age and career?

22. What three-fold character did Cæsar unite? What is said of his

claims to regard?

23. What is remarked of his career and disposition? What apology has been made for him? What Roman patriots lived in the same age?

24. What remark did he make in passing a village among the Alps?

What sentiment of Euripides did he often repeat

25. What is said of his military character, and his popularity with his troops? How are Alexander and Casar compared?

26. What summary does Miller give of Casar's exploits?

27. How did the murder of Cæsar affect the Roman people? What was done by Mark Antony, and what was the effect?

28. What is related of Mark Antony, Lepidus, and Octavius?

29. What did they stipulate? Who were some of the persons consigned to death? What is related respecting the death of Cicero? What persons were sacrificed in the proscription?

30. What is related of Brutus and Cassius? By whom were they

pursued? What was the issue? What course did Brutus and Cassius take?

31. What is mentioned respecting the triumvirs? What is related of Antony and Cleopatra? 32. What was the effect of the battle of Actium? What course did

Antony and Cleopatra take?

SECTION VIII.

1. What is said of the battle of Actium? What is said of Augustus? What did Agrippa, and what did Mæcenas advise him to do?

2. To which did Augustus give the preference? How did he pre-

:eed?

3. What is said of his reputation? What of his reign, and what did he effect?

4. In what year of his age, and after how long a reign, did he die? What is said of him?

5. Of what were Augustus and Mæcenas patrons? What is said of

the Augustan age?

6. By what is the reign of Augustus rendered memorable? When did the birth of our Savior take place? When did he suffer crucifizion?

7. By whom was Augustus succeeded? How did he commence his

reign? How did he afterwards proceed?

8. How did the successes of Germanicus affect Tiberius? Whom did he then take into his confidence? What did Sejanus persuade han to do? What finally happened to Sejanus and Tiberius?

9. Whom'did Tiberius adopt for his heir and successor? What is related of him and his proceedings? What does Seneca say of him?

10. What took place after the death of Caligula? Who was raised

to the throne? What is said of him?

11. What enterprise did he undertake? What is said of Caractacus? What exclamation did he make on being led through the streets of

12. What is related of Messalina? What of Agrippina?

13. By whom was Nero educated? How did he commence his reign? What is said of his character? Who were some of the victims of his cruelty?

14. Why did he cause Rome to be set on fire? How did he attempt

to divert the public odium from himself?

15. What is said of Nero? By whom was the conspiracy against him headed? What crimes did Galba enumerate? What took place respecting him?

16. Who was declared emperor after the death of Nero? What is said of Galba? Whom did he adopt for his successor, and what was

the consequence? What does Tacitus say of him?

17. Who was then proclaimed emperor? What afterwards too place? What course did Vitellius take on being proclaimed emperor What afterwards took place?

18. How was Vespasian received after being declared emperor.

What is said of him and his acts?

19. For what is his reign memorable? What was done to Jerusa lem? How many perished and were taken prisoners? What became of the survivors

20. By whom was Vespasian succeeded? What is related of Titus? What event happened during his reign? By whom was he succeeded? 21. What is said of Domitian, his character and habits?

22. What was the manner of Domitian's death? By what was his reign signalized?

23. Who was the last and who the first of the twelve Cesars?

SECTION IX.

1. Who succeeded Domitian? What is said of Nerva? Whom did

he adopt for his successor?

favorite maxim?

2. What is said of Trajan? For what has he been commended? What is said of him as a general? What charge did he give to the pretorian prefect on presenting the sword? What surname did the senate confer upon him, and how were they accustomed to hail every new emperor?

3. What was the extent of the empire in the reign of Trajan? What conquests did he make? How were his victories commemorated?

4. What is said of him with respect to literature? What is remark-

ed of his death? By what was his character tarnished?

5. By whom was Trajan succeeded? What is said of Adrian? To what did he devote himself? What expedition did he undertake?

What was done by him in Britain? 6. What did he do respecting Jerusalem? What course did the What destruction was made by the emperor's army? Jews take?

Whom did Adrian adopt for his successor? 7. What is said of Titus Antoninus and his reign? What was he

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8 Who succeeded Antoninus Pius? What is said of him? To what

was he attached?

9. Did the Antonines permit the persecution of the Christians? What was presented to the former of the two? What happened to the army under the latter?

10. What are the last five emperors styled? What took place after

this period?

SECTION X.

1. By whom was Aurelius succeeded? What is said of Commodus

By whom was he succeeded? What was his fate?

2. What was now done with the empire? Who was proclaimed emperor instead of Didius Julianus? Who were his competitors? What is said of Severus? What did he do in Britain?

3. To whom did Severus leave the empire? What is related of them? Who succeeded Macrinus?

4. What is said of Heliogabalus? What was his fate?

5. By whom was Heliogabalus succeeded? What is said of Alexander Severus? By whom was he murdered and succeeded? What is said of Maximin?

6. How many reigns were there between Alexander Severus and Diocletian? What was the length of this period? What is said of

these reigns?

7. By whom was Valerian taken prisoner? How was he treated?
8. What is said of the reign of Aurelian? For what was he distinguished? What exploits did he perform? What took place on his

return to Rome? 9. What is said of Diocletian? What did he do after he had reigned

au nile? How was the empire divided?

10. What happened during this reign? What is said of this persecution?

11. What did Diocletian experience in the latter part of his reign? What course did he take? What did he say of his situation?

SECTION XI.

1. Where did Constantius die? Who succeeded him? What extraordinary circumstance is related by historians?

2. What did Constantine become? To what did he put an end?

What is remarked of his reign?

3. What important event took place during his reign? What is thought to have been the effect of this measure? What is said of the character of Constantine?

4. How did Constantine divide the empire? Who became sole emperor? What is said of the reign of Constanting?

5. By whom was Constantius succeeded? What is said of him! What did he undertake to do, and what was the issue? How was he killed?

6. By whom was Julian succeeded? Who was next chosen emperor? What course did he adopt? What people settled in Thrace?
7. Who succeeded Valentinian? Who became sole emperor after

the death of Gratian and Valentinian II.? By what was his reignalized? What is said of him? By whom was he succeeded?

8. What happened through the weakness of the emperors? What 31 *

was done by the Goths? Who defeated Alaric? What did Alaric afterwards perform? To what was the city reduced?

9. What took place after the ravages of famine? What was the address of Alaric to his army? What is said of the devastation?

10. What did the Goths do after the death of Alarie?11. What took place after the sacking of Rome by Alarie? What defeat did Attila suffer? What did he do afterwards?

12. What was the occasion of the invasion of Genseric? What was performed by him?

13. What took place with regard to the Western Empire after the death of Valentinian III.?

14. What is said of the rise and fall of the empire?

SECTION XIL.

1. How long did the kingdom of the Heruli continue? By whom was it terminated? Where was the residence of Theodoric? Who

defeated Theodotus? What afterwards took place?

2. What was done by Narses after he was recalled by Justin? What was done by Alboin? How long did the kingdom of the Lombards last? By whom was it overthrown? What is said of the period from Theodosius to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy?

3. What is said of the Goths? Why were the Ostrogoths and Visi

goths so called? Who were the Heruli and Lombards?

4. What is said of the Eastern Empire?
5. When was this empire in the meridian of its glory? What is said of the code of Justinian?

6. What was performed by Belisarius and Narses? What church was built by Justinian? What is remarked of him and his successors? 7. What happened after the removal of the seat of empire? How

did this controversy terminate?

8. What was done by the Crusaders in 1204? How long did their dominion continue? What was the seat of the Greek emperors during this time?

9. When and by whom was an end put to the Eastern Empare?

SECTION XIII. ROMAN ANTIQUITIES.

2. To whom has the whole structure of the Roman constitution under the monarchy been attributed? What was doubtless true?

3. What three divisions of the people are attributed to Romulus? Who added a four h tribe? How were the tribes named?

4. What other division was made by Servius? How were the classes formed? How many centuries were there?

5. What order was added to those of patricians and plebeians? Of whom were the knights composed?

6. Who were the nobiles? The homines novi? The ignobiles? The ingenui? The liberti or libertini?

7. Of whom did the Roman citizens consist?
8. Who were the slaves? How were they considered? How did men become slaves?

9. What is said of the kings? What could they not do of themselves? What were their badges? In what did they sit, and by whom were they attended?

10. Of how many members did the senate consist? How were they chosen? How often did they moet? What was a senatile consultum? Why were the senators styled patres? Why did the patricians derive their name from them?

11. Why were the magistrates previous to their election styled

candidati 🖣

consul?

12. How were the Roman magistrates divided? Who were the ordinary magistrates? The extraordinary? The provincial?

13. What is said of the consuls? What was done respecting them in dangerous conjunctures? What age was requisite in order to be a

14. What is said of the pretor? What were his duties?

15. What is said of the office of censor? How many censors were there, and what were their duties?

16. For what purpose was the office of the tribunes instituted?17. What were the duties of cdiles? What two kinds were there? 18. What duties did the questors perform? What were the duties of the military questors? The provincial questors?

19. What were the comitia? How many kinds were there? For

what purpose were the comitia summoned?

20. Of what did the comitia curiata consist?

21. What is said of the comitia centuriata? What was done by them? Where did they meet?

22. What were the comitia tributa? For what were they held?

23. How long did the comitia continue to be assembled? Who discontinued them?

24. What is said of the priests or ministers of religion? What priests

were common to all the gods?

25. What is said of the pontifices? Of the pontifex maximus?

26. What is said of the augurs? What of their office? In what five ways did they divine?

27. Who were the haruspices? From what did they derive their

omens?

28. Who were the quindecemviri? What were the Sibylline books supposed to contain?
29. Who were the septemviri?

30. What were the priests of particular deities called? Who were the chief of them?

31. Where did the Romans worship their gods? Of what did their

worship consist?

32. What festivals were there among the Romans? Which were the most celebrated?

33. What games or shows were exhibited?
34. Who were the gladiators? When were these combats introduced? Of whom were the combatants composed? What took place in these exhibitions? What is related of the spectacles exhibited after the triumph of Trajan over the Dacians?

35. What was a triumph? On whom was the honor bestowed?

What is said of the procession? Of whom was it composed?

36. What were the most distinguished parts of the Roman dress? What was the toga? By whom was the toga virilis assumed? What was the tunica?

37. What was the principal meal among the Romans? On what did the early Romans chiefly live? How was it afterwards? How did they place themselves at their meals? What was their ordinary drink?

38. What was the Forum? By what was it surrounded?

30. What was the Campus Martius? By what was it adorned?

THE MIDDLE AGES.

1. What do the Middle Ages comprise? What was the state of

Europe during these centuries?

2 When did the migration of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, &c. take piace? Of what did they possess themselves? What followed? At what time did literature begin to decline? When was the darkest period?

3 What is related respecting these times? To what was the learn-

ing which existed confined?

4. What was the state of morals and of Christianity? What was the political state of Europe?

5. What methods of discovering guilt or innocence were used?6. What was the most considerable empire that existed in Europe during the Middle Ages? What impostor appeared in these ages? At what period did the Saracens cultivate literature?

7. What are some of the most remarkable circumstances which char-

acterized these ages?

THE ARABS OR SARACENS.

1. What is said of the Arabians before the time of Mahomet?

 What is related of the Saracens?
 What is said of the introduction of Christianity into Arabia? What kind of Christianity was it?

4. What is said of Mahomet? How was the Koran formed? On

what did Mahomet rely as proofs of his inspiration?

5. What were his two leading doctrines? What other persons did he admit to have been inspired? What did he adopt and retain? To what did he chiefly owe his success?

6. How did he propagate his religion, and stimulate his followers? What was inculcated as a fundamental doctrine? What do the

Saracens term their religion?

7. How did Mahomet at first succeed? Who were his first con-

8. What was he compelled to do? What is said of his Flight or Hegira? How did he enter Medina? What was his subsequent career?

9. What was the manner of Mahomet's proceeding? What further is said of his character?

10. By whom was Mahomet succeeded? What is the meaning of liph? What is related of Abu-bekir? Who was his successor?

11. What conquests did Omar make?
12. What answer did Omar give, when requested to spare the Alexandrian library? How many volumes did the library contain?

13. What did Omar perform in the space of ten years? By whom was he succeeded? Who was elected after the death of Othman? What is said of him?

14. What is related of the progress and extent of the Saracen em-

pire?

15. For what is the reign of Ali remarkable? What is said of the partisans of Ali? What of his opponents? Who belong to each?

16. To what place did Ali remove the seat of the sovereigns? Te what place was it afterwards removed? What caliphate ranked next to that of Bagdad? What is related of Walid?

17. What was the first race of the caliphs styled? The second?

What is related of Almansor?

18. What is said of the reign of Haroun al Raschid? By what did he render himself illustrious? What are to be referred to these times? What sciences were cultivated? What is said of the successors of Haroun al Raschid?

19. What took place with respect to Arabia after the seat of govern-

ment was removed to Bagdad?

20. What is remarked of the Saracens and their states? How did Spain, Egypt, Morocco, and India regard the caliph of Bagdad? 21. How many caliphs did the house of Abbas furnish? How long

did Bagdad continue the seat of empire? When and by whom was

the caliphate abolished?

22. What is said of the immediate successors of Mahomet? What were their manners? How did they proceed after their power was established?

23. What is said of the power of the caliphs? Was there any privileged order? By what were they bound to observe the duties of humanity and justice? What office did theirs resemble?

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. What was the origin of the Feudal System? By what sove-

reigns was it adopted?

2. How did the northern barbarians dispose of their conquered lands? Who had the largest portion? What were those who receised lands bound to render?

3. How did the courtiers manage? How is a feudal kingdom do-

scribed?

4. What is said of the barons or lords?

5. What was the fundamental principle of this system? What were the grantor and those to whom he made grants styled? How was the service esteemed?

6. What was the condition of the great mass of the people?7. What is said of the feudal government? What did a kingdom resemble?

8. What did a kingdom often exhibit? In what period was Europe in a state of anarchy and war?

9. What were the principal causes of the overthrow of the Feudal System? In what countries does it still exist?

THE CRUSADES.

1. What were the crusades? What nations engaged in them? What is related of the Saracens? What of the Turks? What is said of the dangers of pilgrimage?

2 What is related of Peter the Hermit?

3 What course did pope Urban II. take? How was the project

opened? Why were these expeditions termed Crusades? What was

granted to all who devoted themselves to the service?

4 What description of persons took the cross? What were their inducements? What was done by Peter the Hermit? By what was Peter's a.my followed? What was their fate?

5. What is said of the other part of the expedition? Who were the

commanders? To what did the force amount?

6. What did they accomplish? What was the fortune of God-

7. How did the conquerors divide Syria and Palestine? What afterwards took place? What was the fate of the army under Hugh?

8. By whom was the second crusade preached, and who engaged in it? What was the issue?

9. What is related of Saladin?

10. Who united in the third crusade? What happened to Frederick? What is said of the French and English?

11. What did Richard perform? What happened to him on his

return?

12. Who engaged in the fourth crusade? What was his fortune?
13. What was performed by John de Brienne?

14. What is said of St. Louis IX.?

15. What was his success? How did his crusade against the Moors

terminate?

16. To what did the crusades owe their origin? What is said of them? What character did they assume? What were some of their How many Europeans were buried in the East while they lasted? What became of those who survived?

17. Of what beneficial effects were they productive? In what were

these effects observable?

18. What system prevailed in Europe at this period? What were the barons who engaged in the crusade, obliged to do? What was the effect? How did kings raise money?

19. What is said of the manners and mode of life that prevailed in Europe? With what did the crusaders become acquainted in the

East? To what institutions did the crusades give rise?

20. What was the effect of the crusades on commerce and the arts? How had commerce before this period been carried on? changes afterwards took place?

21. What was the effect of the crusades on literature and religion? What is said of the period of their commencement and duration?

What took place after two centuries of disaster?

22. Were these benefits designed by the projectors?

CHIVALRY.

1. What is said of Chivalry? What does it constitute with regard to the Middle Ages? What were its distinguishing features?

2. What is said of the early history of chivalry? When did it originate? Where were its principles found before? By what was it imbedied into form? What was the effect of the crusades upon it?

3 In what countries did chivalry prevail?
4 How were the sons of noblemen destined for chivalry disciplin

ed? What was the place of their education? What were their differ ent titles?

5. How were they managed? By whom were they surrounded?

What were they taught?

6. What were they taught by the ladies of the castle? What were they accustomed to do in order that they might have opportunity to practise the instructions which they received?

7. What was the proper age for admission to the lonors of anight-

hood? How did the candidate prepare himself?

8. What did he do after having performed the preliminary rites?
9. What were the insignia of chivalry which he received from the

knights and the ladies? In what manner was he dubbed?

10. What was the most important part of the equipments of a knight? What were his weapon and arms? What was his dress? 11. What virtues and endowments were necessary to form an ac-

complished knight?

12. In what estimation was chivalry held? What did one become

on being dubbed? What had he a right to do?

13. What was he authorized to do? How did he proceed in relation to his mistress? What was the injunction of a sovereign when he led his army to the attack?

14. What is said of the influence of chivalry on the female sex?

What was the duty of the knights with regard to the ladies?

15. What is said of the behavior of a knight with regard to the

16. Of what were the knights and ladies ambitious?

17. What virtues did chivalry enjoin? How was a chevalier treated on entering the castle of another? If he arrived wounded, how was be received?

18. What were the favorite amusements and exercises of the

knights? What does Hallam say of the tournaments?

19. What is said of the reward of the victor?
20. What is said of the influence of chivalry? What effects are mentioned?

21. With what did chivalry rise and fall? What put an end both

to the feudal system and to chivalry?

22. What does Dr. Robertson say of the exploits of the knights, and of the effects of chivalry? During what centuries were the effects of chivalry most felt?

23. What is said of the morals of chivalry? What productions

afford evidence of dissolute morals?

24. What was professed and what performed by the knights? What did chivalry nourish? To what did it give birth?

25. To whom is the origin of the duel traced? How far did it pre-

vail among the Germans, Danes, and Franks?

26. What is related respecting its regulations? For what purpose was it then resorted to? For what end is it now practised?

MODERN HISTORY.

1. What different periods have been adopted for the commencement of Modern History?

2. What is the most convenient method in treating of the history of the several European states? What European sovereignty traces its

origin farther back than the 9th century? 3. What is said of the period that succeeded the downfall of the Eastern Empire? What do we see on casting an eye back to this period?

4. What were some of the causes of the beneficial changes?

5. What is said of the Hanse Towns? When did this association commence and flourish?

6. When had Venice, Genoa, and Pisa the management of European commerce? What states took the lead in the maritime discoveries of the 15th and 16th centuries?

7. By what states have Spain and Portugal been succeeded in mar-

itime enterprise?

8. What are now the most powerful European monarchies? What are the countries of which the history is most important to Americans?

FRANCE.

SECTION I.

1. What is said of the history of France and of England? - How long

did the kings of England hold possessions in France?

2. Who were the ancestors of the French? What did ancient Gaul comprehend? By whom and when was it conquered? From what seople did it receive its modern name?

3. What is related of the Franks? What is the first race of French 'ngs styled? Who is regarded as the founder of the monarchy? What did he perform?

4. What is said of the Merovingian kings? What is related of Pe un d'Heristel and Charles Martel?

5. How did Pepin obtain the crown? Of what race of kings was e the founder? How did Pepin reward the pope? 6. By whom was Pepin succeeded?

7. What is related of Charlemagne? When was he crowned em neror of the West? What did his empire comprise?

8. What is said of Charlemagne's services to literature? How did

he manifest his zeal for religion?

9. What is related of his private character and habits?

10. By whom was Charlemagne succeeded? What great battle was fought by the rival brothers? What division of the empire followed?

11. By whom was Charles the Bald succeeded? Who was elected after the short reign of his sons, Louis III. and Carloman? What event followed?

12. To whom was the crown next given? What took place during the reign of Charles the Simple?

13. What took place during the reigns of Louis IV. and Lothaire? What is related of Hugh Capet?

SECTION II.

By whom was Hugh Capet succeeded?
 What law was enacted during the reign of Henry I.?
 By what was the reign of Philip I. signalized? What may be dated from the invasion of France by William the Conqueror?

4. What is said of Louis VI.?
5. What three eminent men flourished during the reign of LouisVI.?
6. What act of violence did Louis perform? To what did the remorse which he felt give rise?

7. Who was the wife of Louis, and what is related of her?8. What is said of Philip Augustus? How did he signalize the commencement of his reign?

9. Of what did Philip accuse John, king of England, and of what

did he deprive him?

- 10. By whom was Philip succeeded?
 11. What is said of Louis IX.? For what was he distinguished? What was his principal weakness?
- 12. By whom was St. Louis succeeded? What event took place during his reign?

 13. What is said of Philip IV.? How was he involved in a quarrel

with pope Boniface?

14. What took place after the death of Boniface? What is the removal of the seat of the papacy to Avignon called? What other acts did Philip perform?

15. By whom was Philip succeeded? For what was the reign of

Philip V. noted?

SECTION III.

1. What is said of the children of Philip the Fair? On whom did

- the throne devolve after the death of Charles the Fair?

 2. Who claimed the crown? To what did this claim of Edward give rise? What did Edward perform? What favorable event happened to Philip in the midst of his misfortunes?
 - 3. By whom was Philip succeeded, and what happened to him?
 - 4. Who next ascended the throne? What measures did Charles V.

adopt, and what was performed?

5. What is said of Charles? How large a library did he collect?

6. By whom was Charles V. succeeded? What is said of him and of his reign? Who was his queen?

7. What advantages did Henry V. of England gain?8. Who next succeeded to the throne? What place did the English besiege, and with what success?

9. By whom was the power of England overthrown? Who was this heroine?

10. How did she execute her exploit? How did Charles succeed? What course did Joan then take, and what was her fate?

11. What was the success of the French? What is further related of Charles?

12. What is said of the character and reign of Louis XI.?

13. In what war was he involved with the nobles?

14. What is said of Charles VIII.? In what expedition did he en gage? 32

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SECTION IV.

- 1. By whom was Charles VIII. succeeded? What was the charac What did he say with respect to those ministers ter of Louis XII. who had treated him ill before he came to the throne?

2. What is related of his exploits and success?
3. What is said of the republic of Venice? Who projected the League of Cambray against it? What was the issue?

4 What victory did the French gain? What took place after the

death of Gaston de Foix?

5. Who succeeded Louis XII. ? What is said of Francis?

6. For what were Francis and Charles rival candidates? What did Francis say with respect to the object of competition?

7. What was the issue, and how did it affect the two rivals?

8. For what is the reign of Charles V. distinguished? What is said of Charles and other contemporary sovereigns?

9. What was the commencement of the contest between the two rivals? What is related respecting the constable of Bourbon? What happened to the king of France at Pavia?

10. What course did Charles take with regard to Francis? What did the French king do after being set at liberty? What is said of

the conduct of the two sovereigns?

11. How did the two monarchs treat each other, when they met at Aigues Mortes, after having been at war for 20 years? What afterwards took place?

12. What was the occasion of the renewal of the war? What was

the issue ?

13. How did Francis leave his kingdom? What did he patronize? What did the French court acquire at this period?

14. What qualities did Francis possess? What was his character?
15. Who was the successor of Francis, and what is said of Henry II.? What is said of his reign? What great events took place during

16. How was this war terminated? By what other events was the reign of Henry signalized?

17. Who was the successor of Henry? Who succeeded Francis II.?
18. What was now the state of Protestantism in France?

19. Who was at the head of the Catholics? For what purpose was the conspiracy of Amboise formed? What was the issue of it?

20. What edict was published after the conference at Poissy? What

happened soon afterwards?
21. What was the progress of the war?

22. What were the facts respecting the massacre on St. Bartholo-

mew's day? What does Thuanus say of it?

23. What did Charles say on giving directions? What was done at Rome on hearing the news? What is said of Charles? Through whose influence were many wise laws enacted during this reign?

24. By whom was Charles succeeded? What was the effect of the mass are of St. Bartholomew? What did Henry do for the Protes-

tents? What course did the Catholics take?

25. What measure was the king persuaded to adopt? How did he find himself situate1, and what did he do? What was the consequence?

SECTION V.

1. To whom did the throne pass after the death of Henry III. What is said of the mother of Henry IV., and of himself?

2. What is said of the army of the League? In what battle die

Henry defeat it?

3. Why did Henry change his religion? What followed? What did he do in favor of the Calvinists?

4. To what did Henry turn his attention after being quietly seated on the throne? By whom was he assisted? What change was effected?

5. What romantic scheme did Henry form? What happened to

him before he executed his design?

6. What is said of the character of Henry? What was his reply when asked what the revenue of France amounted to?

7. What were the defects of his character? How many persons

were killed in duels during the first eighteen years of his reign?

8. By whom was Henry succeeded? What is said of Mary de Medicis? What is related of Cardinal Richelieu, his policy, and objects?

9. What course did the Protestants take? What measure did Richelieu adopt? What was the issue?

10. What is further related respecting the proceedings of Richelieu? By whom was a rebellion excited? What did Richelieu effect?

11. What is said of the character of Louis?
12. Who next succeeded to the throne? Who was chosen minis ter? What is said of Mazarin? By what was his administration signalized?

13. What took place after the death of Mazarin? What is related

of Louis and his exploits?

14. Who were some of his chief men in the cabinet and in the field?
15. What success did Louis meet with? What is related respecting the two devastations of the Palatinate?

16. What events afterwards took place? What were the conse-

quences of Louis's conquests and of his ambition?

17. What states united against him in the League of Augsburg? What alliance was formed in 1701? Against whom had the armice of Louis now to contend? What victories did Marlborough and Prince Eugene gain?

18. What was one of the worst measures of Louis? What was done

by this act? What did France lose by it?

19. How long was the reign of Louis? What is said of it?

20. What is said of the person and manners of Louis?

21. What is said of his talents and character? What did he patron ize, and how is his reign regarded?

SECTION VI.

1. Who succeeded Louis XIV.? For what is the regency of the Duke of Orleans remarkable?

2. Whom did Louis XV. choose for his minister after coming of age? What is said of the administration of Fleury?

3. In what war was France involved after the death of Fleury? Who were the two claimants for the imperial throne? By whom were they supported? Where were the French defeated, and what battle did they gain? How were hostilities terminated?

4. What war broke out in 1775? How was it terminated?

was the remainder of this roign chiefly occupied?

5 What is said of Louis? What title was conferred upon him
by his subjects? What induced them to retract it? What is further said of him and his reign?

6. Who succeeded to the throne? What is said of Louis XVI.?

What were the difficulties of his situation?

7. What was one of his first measures? Who were appointed to effice? What was the effect?

8. What is said of Necker? What followed after he was displaced?
9. What took place after the war broke out between Great Britain

and her American colonies? What was the state of affairs after the return of peace?

10. What were some of the principal causes of the French revolution? What was the more immediate cause?
11. What measure did Louis adopt by the advice of Calonne? What was proposed to the assembly of the Notables? How did they receive it?

12. By whom was Calonne succeeded? What body was next assembled? Of what orders was the States General composed?

13. What did Necker propose respecting the States General? What

was the result? 14. How did the king address the states general? What difficulties arose?

15. What measure did the commons adopt? Who were leading

members in the National Assembly?

16. What is said of their measures? In what situation were the

king and nobility placed?

17. What is said of the dismissal of Necker? What outrages were

committed? What is said of the king and royal family? 18. What is said of the progress of the revolution and changes

which were effected?

19 What was the next great design of the assembly? What is related of Louis? What of the constitution? 20. What was the next assembly styled? What is related of the

Jacobin club?

21. What new body next met? What was done at their first sitting? What is related respecting the king?

22. What were some of the remarks of Deseze in defence of Louis?

23. By what majority was the king condemned? What is further related of him?

SECTION VIL

1. In what was the executive power now lodged? What is the dom ination of Robespierre and his associates styled? What two parties arose in the National Convention? Who were the leaders?

2. What did the Mountain party do? What is related of the Duke

of Orleans?

3. To what further excesses did the Convention proceed? What

was done to the churches?

4. How was the convention divided anew? What followed? In what was the executive power afterwards vested? How many con stitutions were formed from 1791 to 1799? In whom was the exec tive power vested by the f urth?

5 What was the French revolution at first? What did it become?

What change did it effect?

6. What course was taken by many of the nobility and clergy before the execution of the king? What was the effect? Of what was this the origin? What states declared war against France after the death of the king?

7. What is said of the Duke of Brunswick?

8. What was the issue of the invasion? What advantages did France gain? To whom was the command of the army in Italy given? What did Bonaparte accomplish?

9. When was the Second Coalition formed? What had Bonaparte

done before this event?

10. What advantages were gained over the French in 1799? What did Bonaparte do at this crisis

11. What change now took place in the affairs of France?

12. What achievements did Bonaparte then perform? events did the victories of Marengo and Hohenlinden lead?

13. What is said of the limits of France and power of Bonaparte?

What measure did the Convention adopt with regard to religion?

14. To what office was Bonaparte now raised? By whom was a conspiracy formed against him? What became of the conspirators? What were Bonaparte's next elevations?

15. When and by what powers was the Third Coalition formed? What course did Bonaparte then take, and with what success? What

followed the victory of Austerlitz?

16. What victory was gained by Lord Nelson a little before the battle of Austerlitz?

17. What course did Bonaparte take with regard to Naples and Hol-What with respect to the German empire? What was done by Francis II.? What electors did Bonaparte raise to the rank of kings?

18. How and by whom was the Fourth Coalition formed? What battles did Bonaparte gain? What did he do on entering the capital What other battle did the French army gain?

19. What were the next proceedings of Bonaparte? What treaties were made with Russia and Prussia? What was done with the provinces conquered from Prussia?

20. What course did the British government take in retaliation of the Berlin Decree? What was done by the emperor after the peace of Tilsit?

21. How did Bonaparte seem to be affected by his success? What did he do respecting Spain and Portugal?

22. How did he dispose of the throne of Spain?

23. What part did the Spaniards take? How long did the war last? Who commanded the forces of England and Spain? What were some of the principal exploits?

24. With what empire was France again involved in war? What

successes did Bonaparte gain?

25. To what terms was the emperor of Austria compelled to submit by the treaty of Vienna? What followed in consequence of this treaty?

26. To what did Alexander accede by the treaty of Tilsit, and what were its consequences? How was the year 1811 spent? What measures did Bonaparte adopt?

27. Whither did he direct his march? What events followed? Why

was Moscow burnt?

28. How did this transaction affect Bonaparte, and what had he expected? What course was he compelled to adopt? 32 *

29. What is said of his retreat? What losses were sustained?

30. What course did the French emperor pursue? How large at army did he now raise? By what was he opposed?

31. What were the next events? What is said of the bettle of Leipdo?

32. What course did Bonaparte now take? What was done by the Allies?

33. What measure was Bonaparte new compelled to adopt, and what place was fixed upon for his residence? What followed?

34. For what purpose was the Congress of Vienna assembled? What did Bonaparto now undertake? How did he proceed? What said of his progress?

35 What measures did he take to strengthen his authority?
36. What was done by the Congress of Vienna? What events fol-

lowed?

37. What is said of the battle of Waterloo? What course did Bonaparte now take? What was done with him by the allied sovereigns? When did Bonaparte die, and at what age?

38. What is said of the career of Bonaparte? At what age was he raised to his several elevations? What is said of his power?

39. Why may he be called a king-maker? What is remarked of the last four kings?

40. What did he unite in his own person? What is said of his

deeds? For what is France indebted to him?

41. Of what beneficial measures was he the author? What was his ruling passion? What is said of his opportunity of being useful? What did he choose to be?

42. What is further said of him and his career?

43. What took place after the second dethronement of Bonaparte? What measures were adopted with regard to France? When was the army of occupation withdrawn? What is said of Murat and Ney?

44. What was the principal event during the reign of Louis XVIII.?

By whom has he been succeeded?

ENGLAND.

SECTION I.

1. What is said of the history of England?

2. What conflicts have been maintained in England?

3. Why is the history of England interesting to the citizens of the United States?

4. Why do we feel an interest in the conflicts which civil and religious liberty has had with despotism and bigotry in England?

5. When did Julius Cæsar invade Britain? Who defeated Caracta

cus? By whom was the Roman dominion completely established?

6 What sort of people were the Britons at the time of the con quest? What were their habits and their religion?

7. What three walls did the Romans build across Britain? When

did they entirely abandon the country?

8. By whom was the southern part of the island afterwards invaled? To whom did the Britons apply for assistance? What was the mault?

9. What course did the Saxons take? From whom is the name of England derived?

10. What is related of Arthur? How long did the Heptarchy subsist? Who united the seven kingdoms into one monarchy?

11. How was Christianity introduced?

SECTION II.

1. What is related of the Danes?

2. What is said of Alfred and of his contest with the Danes? What was he compelled to do?

3. What stratagem did he use? What was his success?

4. How did he employ himself after tranquillity was restored? What measures are attributed to him?

5. What is said of the character of Alfred?6. By whom was he succeeded? What is said of Edward?

7. What is related of Athelstan?
8. What is related of Edmund? Of Edred? Of Dunstan?

9. What is mentioned of Edwy or Edwin?

- 10. For what is the reign of Edgar remarkable?
 11. By whom was Edgar succeeded? What is said of Edward? 12. What outrage was committed by Ethelred that exasperated the Danes?
 - 13. What did the Danes accomplish? Who succeeded Ethelred?
- 14. What took place after the death of Sweyn? What did Canute accomplish? What is said of him?

15. What two other Danish kings succeeded to the throne?
16. Who was then raised to the throne? What is said of Edward. With what privilege was he said to be favored? How long was the practice of touching for the king's evil by the English kings continued?

17. To whom did Edward bequeath the crown? Who was elected

by the nobility?

18. What did William resolve to d-? What followed? What losses were sustained? What was the issue?

SECTION III.

1. What is said of William? What does Mr. Burke say of him?

2. In what way did he disgust the English? What changes did he introduce?

3. What did he do by his forest laws? How did he form the New Forest? What was one of the most useful acts of his reign?

4. What is said of William II. and his reign?
5. In what way did Henry I. obtain the crown? What more did he do respecting his brother?

6. How were the Saxon and Norman families united? What affliction did Henry suffer, and what is said of him?

7. Who was the rightful heir to the crown after the death of Henry? Who usurped the throne? What followed?

8. What was done by Henry? What followed? What is said of Stephen's reign?

SECTION IV.

1. What is said of Henry II. ! Why is he called Shortmantle? What

did he possess besides England?

2. To whom do some of the most remarkable events of his reign relate? What is said of Becket? How did he conduct himself as chancellor and as archbishop?

3. What is related of the power and crimes of the clergy?

- 4. For what purpose were the Constitutions of Clarendon framed? What exclamation did Henry make respecting Becket? What fol-
- 5. What was the effect of this transaction? What was done by the

pope, and what did Becket's tomb become?

ů. What penance did Henry do for his offence? 7. What is said of the latter part of Henry's reign? What occasion ed his wretchedness?

8. What part did his queen take? What did his sons engage in?

9. What did Henry do when he found that his son John had joined the confederacy against him?

10. What is said of the character of Henry?

11. For what is his reign remarkable? What is related respecting the arts and conveniences of life?

12. What is related respecting the magnificence of Becket?

13. How did Richard I. commence his reign? With whom did he unite in a crusade? What was achieved?

14. What happened to him as he was returning home? How was

he ransomed?

15. What has Richard been styled, and what is said of him?
16. What crime is John, Richard's brother and successor, supposed to have committed? What course did Philip Augustus of France take? What followed?

17. What is related of Pope Innocent III.? In what way did John

make peace?

18. What was done by the barons? What followed? What is said of Magna Charta? What other charter did the king grant?

19. What is said of John and his reign?

20. What is said of Henry III. and his reign?

21. What is said respecting the cause of freedom and the prosperity of the nation?

22. What was done by the barons? What measure did the twenty

four barons adopt?

23. What was the effect of this measure? Where did Leicester defeat the royal army? What did he afterwards do? Of what was his summoning deputies from the principal boroughs the commence-

24. What did Prince Henry perform? What was the issue? 25. What did Edward I. do to the Jews? What did he afterwards accomplish? What did he create his eldest son?

26. What effect had the conquest of Wales on Edward? What took

place with regard to Scotland?

27. What took place in consequence of Baliol's renouncing his alle-

giance? What did Edward accomplish?

28. Who roused the Scots to recover their independence? What was the issue? What happened to Wallace? Who was the second Scotch champion. What further was done by Edward?

29. What is said of Edward? What of his reign? What important clause did he add to Magna Charta?

30. What enterprise did Edward II. undertake? What was the

wede?

31. What is said of Edward? How was his reign characterized?
32. What is said of Isabella? What was done to the king?
33. Who had the chief control during the minority of Edward III.? What is said of Edward on his coming of age? What became of Mortimer and Isabella?

34. What victory did Edward gain over the Scots? What measure

did he adopt with regard to France?

35. What naval victory did he gain?
36. What account is given of the battle of Cressy? For what is this battle memorable? What further advantage did he gain?
37. What took place in England while Edward was in France?
38. What secount is given of the battle of Poictiers? What was

done with king John?

39. What is said of Edward in the latter part of his reign? What is mentioned of the Black Prince and of Charles V. of France? What is said of the death of the Black Prince?

40. What is said of Edward and his reign? What is said of his

wars?

41. What is mentioned respecting chivalry in this reign?
42. What is said of Richard II.? To whom was the administration of the government intrusted during his minority? What is said of John of Guunt?

43. What tax was imposed, and what was its effect? What is related respecting a tax-gatherer? What events followed?

44. What account is given of the battle of Otterburn? What ballad

is founded on this battle?

45. What did Richard do respecting his cousin Henry? How did Henry revenge himself? What became of the king?
46. Who was the true heir to the crown? What contests followed

this transaction? What is said of Chaucer?

SECTION V.

1. What is said of Henry's situation? What account is given of the battle of Shrewsoury?

2. What was supposed respecting Henry while a subject?

did he proceed after he came to the throne 3. What is said of Henry and his reign?

4. By what was the latter part of his life imbittered? What is related of the Prince of Wales

5. What did the king say respecting the circumstance?6. What course did Henry V. take on succeeding to the throne? What is said of this conduct?

7. What account is given of Sir John Oldcastle?
8. In what war did Henry engage, and what battle did he gain? What was the loss of the French? What followed?

9. What is said of the reign and character of Henry?

10. At what age was Henry VI. proclaimed king of England and France ' To whom was his education intrusted, and who were pro tectors of his dominions?

11. What is related of Charles VII. and his success.

12. What is said of Henry on coming of age? Whom did he marry? What is said of her?

13. What is related of Jack Cade's rebellion?

14. What is mentioned respecting the Duke of Gloucester? What was the consequence of his death?

15. What was the origin of the houses of York and Lancaster? How were the parties distinguished, and what were the wars styled?

16. What is related of this quarrel?

17. In what battles were the Lancastrians defeated? What was done by the queen? What did the son and successor of the Duke of York accomplish?

SECTION VI.

1. What battle took place between the two parties, soon after Ed ward IV. was raised to the throne? How many were slain? What became of Henry?

2. What became of the queen? What is related of her deliverance

by a robber?

3. By whom had the house of York been hitherto supported? What course did the Earl of Warwick take in consequence of Edward's offending him? What followed?

4. What was the issue of the battle of Barnet? Of Tewksbury?

What became of the queen and her son?

5. What course did Edward afterwards pursue? What did he do

to his brother the Duke of Clarence? What is said of him?
6. Who succeeded to the throne? What is related of Richard Duke of Gloucester? What was done with the young princes?

7. In whom did Richard III. find an avenger? What followed

What was the effect of the battle of Bosworth?

8. What is said of the character and person of Richard?

SECTION VII.

1. How did Henry VII. strengthen his claim to the crown? What was Henry's descent? What is said of the Tudor family?

2. What was the policy of Henry? What was attempted by Lambert Simnel? What by Perkin Warbeck? What is said of him?

3. To what did the adventurers aspire? What is said of him? Simnel? What of Perkin? Who was executed near the same time?

4. What is said of the character and habits of Henry? What did he

4. What is said of the character and habits of Henry? What did is accumulate by his frugality and exactions?

5. What is said of his reign? What was the effect of his regula-

tions?

6. What was the consequence of his permitting the nobles to alienate their lands? What was the commencement of the English navy?

te their lands? What was the commencement of the English navy?
7. What advantages had Henry VIII. on succeeding to the throne?
8. What was the character which he developed? What does Sir

Walter Raleigh say of him?

9. What is said of his government? What of his ministers?
10. What became of the treasures which he inherited? What were the military operations of his reign?

11. How did he obtain the title of Defender of the Faith?

12. What are the most memorable transactions of his reign? Who was his first wife? What is said of this connection?

13. What is related of Cardinal Wolsey in relation to this mat-

14. What course was taken to disannul the marriage? What after-

wards took place in England?

15. What is remarked respecting the separation of England from the Church of Rome? What course did Henry now pursue? Who were beheaded for refusing to acknowledge his supremacy?

16. What was the fate of Anne Boleyn? Who were Henry's other

queens, and what was their destiny?

17. What three children did Henry leave? Who succeeded him? What is said of his reign? What is said of the Reformation?

18. What is related of Edward? To whom did he bequeath the

19. By whom was Edward succeeded? What is said of Marv?

20. What is related of Jane Grey and her husband?21. What message did Jane Grey send to her husband on the day of

her execution?

22. What course was taken with regard to religion? Who were some of the most eminent martyrs? What effect was produced by these proceedings?

23. To whom was Mary married? What happened in the last year

of her reign? What is related respecting her death?

4 How was the accession of Elizabeth received? What is said of

her reign? By what names was it illustrated?

25. What is related of the changes with respect to religion? Of 9,000 clergymen, how many gave up their preferments on the accession of Elizabeth?

26. With what is Elizabeth charged in her treatment of Mary, Queen of Scots? Who was Mary? What had she been persuaded to do?

27. What had taken place at the period of Mary's return to Scot-

28. What is related of Mary's second and third marriages? What

effect did her conduct produce?

29. What course did Mary then take? What was her fate?

30. How did Elizabeth offend Philip II. of Spain? How did he attempt to avenge himself?

31. Of what did the Armada consist? By what force and what commanders was it met? What was the result?

32. By what eminent statesmen was Elizabeth assisted? Who were her chief personal favorites?

33. What is said of her close of life? To what has her unhappiness

been ascribed? What anecdote is related respecting Essex?

34. What is said of Elizabeth and her public character? What were her three leading maxims of policy? What is further said of her reign and character?

35. What is said of her private character?

SECTION VIII.

1. Whom did Elizabeth nominate for her successor? What title did James assume? What is said of the Stuart family?

2. What conspiracy was formed against James? What is related of

Sir Walter Raleigh?

3. What was the design of the Gunpowder Plot? Who was taken with matches in his pocket?

4. What was James's characteristic weakness? Who were his chief favorites?

5. When did the Puritans first make their appearance? For what were they advocates? Were their hopes realized on the accession of James? What settlement did they begin?

6. What was James's leading characteristic? What was his favor-te topic? What was the best part of his character?

7. What is said of his private character, talents, and manners? What does Bishop Burnet say of him?

8. What circumstances had conspired to diffuse the spirit of liberty?

How was the current of public opinion directed?

9. Under what circumstances did Charles I. ascend the throne? What was the state of feeling of many of his subjects? Of what did he soon give proof? Whom did he marry?

10. Why did Charles visit Madrid? What was the result? Why

was Charles offended with the parliament? What course did he

pursue?

11. What taxes did he levy? How was the tax of ship-money levied? What did Charles claim? What is said of this tax?

12. Who opposed this tax? How was the cause decided?

13. Who were Charles's chief counsellors after the assassination of

Buckingham? What course did Laud pursue?

14. What measure did the king undertake with respect to Scotland? What effect did it produce? What took place at one of the churches in Edinburgh?

15. What success did the prelates meet with in other parts? What is said of the National Covenant? What other bond was form-

16. When, after eleven years' intermission, the king convoked a parliament, what measures did the house of commons adopt? What was

done by a parliament afterwards assembled?

17. How had Charles already violated the privileges of parliament? Into what act of greater indiscretion was he afterwards betrayed? What answer did Lenthal, the speaker, make, when the king ordered him to point out the five men?

18. How did the king then proceed? What was now the feeling of

the parliament towards him?

19. By whom, in the civil war, was the cause of the king supported? By whom that of the parliament? What were the supporters of each styled?

20. What formed the characteristic of most of the leaders in parliament? On whom did the charge of license and excess chiefly fall?

What is remarked by Mr. Baxter?

21. How long was it since England had been but little engaged in war? Who were the chief commanders in the royal army? Who in the parliamentary army? What two men were killed in an early part of the contest? In what battles had the royalists the advantage? In what ones were they defeated?

22. What happened to the king? What measure was adopted re-ecting him? What sentence was passed?

23. What is said of Charles on this occasion, and how did he con-

duct himself?

24. What lesson does the fate of Charles furnish? What is said of the feelings of the people respecting his execution? What has been the effect of it on his reputation?

25. What were the misfortunes of Charles's condition? What was his greatest defect?

26. What is said of his talents, private character, and manners?

27. What is said of the proceedings of Charles? What does Mr. Hume say respecting the Puritans?

23. What is said of those who opposed the king?
25. What measures were adopted after the death of the king?
26. What was done respecting episcopacy? Who soon after gained the ascendency? To what body was the power transferred from the parliament? Of whom was that part of the parliament called the Rump, composed?

31. What course was adopted by the parliament of Scotland? Where did Cromwell defeat the royalist Covenanters? What ac-

count is given of the battle of Worcester?

32. What adventures did young Charles meet with?
33. What is said of the Navigation Act? Of what war was this act the cause? How did this war terminate, and who took a distinguished part in it?

34. How many years had the Long Parliament been in session? What course did it adopt? What did Cromwell resolve upon? What did he do while in a council of officers?

35. What was his next proceeding?

36. In what manner was the Little Parliament assembled? What is said of it?

37. What title did Cromwell assume at the dissolution of the Little Parliament? What is further related of him?

38. How did he administer the government? What is said of his proceedings and situation?

39. What is said of his talents and career?

40. To what did he owe his elevation? What is said of the officers and soldiers? How did Cromwell manage while toiling up the ascent to greatness?

41. To what has the name of Cromwell been subjected? What is said of the treatment he has received from history? Why is it so?

42. What is said of his private character?

43. What is said of Richard Cromwell? What was done by gene-

ral Monk? When was Charles II. restored?

44. How did the nation suffer him to assume the crown? What do his reign, and that of James II., exhibit? What is said of the new king?

45. What change now took place? What measures were adopted respecting the regicides? What principles and doctrines came in vogue? What acts were passed respecting religion?

46. What was done with Dunkirk? With what nation did Charles

engage in war? What calamities visited London?

47. Why did the government become unpopular? On whom was the odium cast? What were the five ministers, who conducted the government after Clarendon was banished, termed?

48. What was the religion of Charles and James? For what purpose did Charles receive a pension of Louis XIV. of France? What is said of the latter part of Charles's reign?

49. Whose execution was occasioned by the pretended Popish Plot? What is said of the Rye-House Plot?

50. What was the character of the court? How was the reign characterized? What is said of Charles II.?

51. What is said of James II. and his reign? What course did be 33

take on assuming the government? Who were his counsellors, and what did he attempt to do?

52. What is related of the Duke of Monmouth? How were those

who favored him treated? What is related of Jeffreys?

53. How did James succeed in his designs? What act of his roused the general indignation? Who was invited to England to assume the government?

54. What followed? What was done by the convention-parlia-

What is this event styled?

55. What was now done respecting the British constitution? What regulations were made respecting religion? What are some of the most important articles in the declaration of the rights of the subjects?

56. What is related of archbishop Sancroft, &c.? What were they

styled?

57. What course did Ireland adopt? Where was James defeated by William? What naval battle was fought? What peace followed? 58. What is said of William? What is said of Mary his queen ?

59. Who succeeded William? What is said of Anne? For what

was her reign distinguished?

60. What states united in an alliance against France? Who were the commanders of the allied army? What victories did the Allies gain? When was the war terminated?
61. What is said of the constitutional union between England and

Scotland?

62. When did the party names of Whigs and Tories first become common? What is said of the two parties? Who advocated the accession of William and Mary? What is said of the state of parties during the reign of Anne?

SECTION IX.

1. Who succeeded Anne? What is said of George I.? To what are some faults in his government attributed?

2. What change took place in the names of the two parties? were favored by George? What part did the Tories take?

3. What is related of the South-Sea Scheme?

4. What is said of George II.? What is said of his partialities in favor of his continental dominions?

5. What is related of Sir Robert Walpole?

6. What is said of the military operations of this roign? Who suc ceeded to the dominions of Charles VI., emperor of Germany? Who asserted his claim to the throne?

7. To what war did this give rise? What battle did the Allies gain, and in what were they routed? How was the contest decided?

8. What took place in Britain while George II. was on the continent? Where did the Pretender defeat the royal forces? Where was he finally defeated?

9. What advantages did the British gain over the French in America? By what were they followed?

10. In what circumstances did George III. commence his reign? How was the war with France closed?

11. What is said of Lord Chatham? What was the consequence of

the oppressive measures respecting the American Colonies?

12. What were the other most important events during the reign of George III.?

13. What is said of the French revolution? What course did the government of Great Britain take?

14. Who devised the system of operations? What is said of this ar? What were some of the victories gained by the British?
15. What is said of the reign of George III.? What was his condition during the last ten years of his life? What is said of George 111.?

16. By whom was George III. succeeded? What are some of the most important events of this reign?

EUROPEAN STATES.

SCOTLAND.

1. What is said of the pretensions of Scotland to a regular succession of kings from the time of Alexander the Great? What were the principal tribes that anciently inhabited Scotland? Who was the first king of all Scotland?

2. In whose reign did the most memorable contests happen between Scotland and the kings of England? Who were Edward's antago-

nists? In what battle did Robert Bruce defeat the English? 3. What took place in 1603? What in 1706?

GERMANY.

1. Into what three monarchies was the Empire of the West divided in 843? What afterwards took place? What two sovereigns governed Germany in the 10th century?

2. For what is the reign of Henry IV. remarkable? To what factions did the election of Conrad III. give rise? To whom were the

Ghibelines, and to whom the Guelphs attached?

3. By what was the reign of Frederick Barbarossa signalized? By what was the reign of Conrad IV. followed? Who was elected emperor after the Great Interregnum?

4. What is said of the principal events in the history of the latter emperors of the Franconian line and those of the Swabian line?

What were the grounds of these contests?

5. What quarrel took place between Louis IV. and pope John XXII.

What was determined by the Pragmatic Sanction?

6. For what is the reign of Sigismund memorable? Who were burnt by the Council of Constance? What was done by the adherents of Huss and Jerome in Bohemia?

- 7. What is related of Maximilian I.?
 8. What emperor was the most powerful sovereign of his age? What is related of Charles V.? What is said of the Reformation?
- 9. By what were the reigns of Ferdinand II. and Ferdinand III signalized? What account is given of this war? How did it issue?

10. What took place on the death of Charles VI.? How was the war of the Austrian Succession terminated?

11. When and how did the German Empire terminate?
12. When was the imperial government hereditary? How was it afterwards? What was the mode of election at first? How afterwards?

SPAIN.

1. By whom was Spain invaded in the 5th century? What took place in the 8th century?

2. What was done by the Moors? What was accomplished by Abderrahman in 755? What is said of the Moorish states?

3. What course did the Gothic or Christian forces pursue? What does the history of Spain present? 4. What Christian kingdoms were formed? How did the kingdoms of Castile, Leon, and Arragon become united?

5. What is said of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabeila?

6. What is said of Spain during the reigns of Charles I. and Philip M.? What has since taken place?

PORTUGAL.

1. What is related of the early history of Portugal?

2. How was Henry, Duke of Burgundy, rewarded for his services to Alphonso, king of Castile? What did his son and successor Alphonso ecomplish?

3. For what is the reign of John I. famous?

4. For what were the reigns of John II. and Emanuel distinguished? What was done during their reigns? What took place with respect to trade after the discovery of a passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope? Who first shared with the Portuguese the aavigation of the Cape?5. What is said of the period from John I. to the conquest of Portu

gal by Philip of Spain?

6. What took place in 1580? When were the Spaniards expelled?
7. What is said of the discovery and colonization of Brazil?
8. What took place in 1827? What measure was adopted with respect to Brazil? What happened in 1826?

THE NETHERLANDS.

1. What was the situation of the Netherlands in the Middle Ages? What is said of the country in the 15th century?

2. To whom did Charles V. resign these provinces? What after

wards took place respecting them?

3. What is said of the prosperity of the Dutch Provinces?

4. What measure was adopted in relation to the Seventeen Provin ces by the congress of Vienna?

POLAND.

1. When and by whom was Christianity introduced into Poland? When was the monarchy in its most flourishing state?

2. What is related of Casimir III.? What took place in the latter

part of the 14th century?

3. Under whose reign did the kingdom rise to its greatest height; What took place afterwards?

4. By whom and when was Poland conquored and partitioned?

SWEDEN.

1. What did Sweden and Norway anciently form? What took place in the latter part of the 14th century? What followed?

2 What is related of Gustavus Vasa?

3. What is said of Gustavus Adólphus and his reign?
4. What is said of Charles XII.? What was his career?
5. What is related of Gustavus IV.? By whom was he succeeded? By what has the loss of Finland been repaired?

DENMARK.

1. To whom did the crown of Denmark fall in 1448? What is said respecting the monarchy?

2. With whom was Denmark engaged in war in the beginning of the 18th century? How long afterwards did the country enjoy peace?

- 3. What was the condition of the kingdom during the reigns of Christian VI. and Frederick V.? By what statesman was the latter assisted?
 4. Whom did Christian VII. marry? What is said of Matilda?
 5. By whom was Copenhagen attacked in 1801? What was the
- pretence for bombarding it in 1807? How large a fleet was surrendered to the British?

PRUSSIA.

1. By whom was the foundation of Prussian greatness laid? What is related of his successor?

2. What is said of Frederick II.?

3. Against whom did Frederick declare war in 1756. How was the contest carried on, and how terminated? What was the only gainful result of this sanguinary struggle?

4. What did Frederick afterwards do? What is said of him?

5. What did the king of Prussia lose by war with the French? What course did he take in 1813? What did he gain by the treaty of Vienna?

RUSSIA.

1. What is said of the importance of Russia? What is related of Poter the Great?

2. What is said of Catharine II.? What further is related of her

character and exploits?

3. By whom was Catharine succeeded? What is said of Alexander? 4. By what has the reign of Nicholas been distinguished? When was the war against Turkey declared? What is related of it, and

how did it terminate?

ROME.

When did the temporal power of the pope commence? When

did it attain its zenith?

2. What is said of the first half of the 16th century? What is related of popes Julius II. and Leo X.? What took place during the pontificate of the latter? How has the power of the pope since been duninished?

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3. What was done by Bonaparte in 1809? What was done by the congress of Vienna?

TURKEY.

1. What are the Turks? What is the first notice of them in his-

tory' By whom was their dominions united?
2. What conquest was made by Amurath? What by Bajazet?

What by Mahomet II.?

3 How did the Turks afterwards succeed? What countries were conquered by Selim? What is said of the reign and exploits of Soly man the Magnificent?

4. With whom have the Turks been engaged in war since the time

of Sclyman?

5. By what has the Turkish power been lately weakened?6. When did the Greeks revolt? What took place afterwards? What was done in 1828?

AMERICA.

1. What is said of the discovery of America? What were some of the effects of this discovery?

2. To whom is the world indebted for this discovery? What is re-

lated of Columbus?

3. What did he conceive was necessary in order to complete the

balance of the terraqueous globe r

4. How was the merchandise of India conveyed to Europe before the passage round the Cape of Good Hope was known? For what purpose did Columbus undertake his voyage of discovery?

5. To whom did he apply in succession for assistance? From whom did he gain some favor after seven years' solicitation? With what was he provided for the expedition? What appointment did he obtain?

6. From what place and when did he sail? How did he proceed?

7. What circumstance alarmed both him and his men? How did he manage? What took place thirty days after? How far was he compelled to yield to his crew?

8. When did Columbus first discover a light? What satisfaction did

the crew now make to Columbus?

9. What island was first discovered? What islands were discovered afterwards? Why did he name these islands the West Indies?

10. What did he procure before he set sail for Spain? What happened during the voyage? What method did he take to preserve an account of his discovery? What favorable occurrence took place. Whither did he proceed?

11. When did Columbus discover the continent of South America? What was caused by his successes? What was done to Columbus? What did he say when the captain offered to release him from his

fetters?

12. What did he afterwards do with his fetters?

13. What was the feeling upon Columbus' arriving thus in Spain?

How was he treated?

14. How did Columbus obtain command over the Indians in his fou, th voyage? What afterwards happened to him? What is said of his fure al? What inscription was engraved on his tomb?

15. By whom was Columbus deprived of the honor of giving his name to the continent? What did Americus claim? What is said of this act of injustice?

16. Who first sailed to India round the Cape of Good Hope? What is said of this enterprise? What is related of Magellan?

17. When and by whom was the continent of North America first discovered?

18. What land was first seen? Which way did they proceed? what manner did they take possession of the country?

19 When and with what force did Cortez invade Mexico? How

were his men armed? With what else was he furnished? 20. How was Cortez received by Montezuma? How did Cortez re-

quite his hospitality? What followed?

21. What assistance did Cortez obtain? What was the success of the Spaniards? 22. When did the Spaniards form a settlement at Panama? . With

what force did Pizarro sail from this place in order to conquer Peru? 23. In what manner did he proceed with the inca Atabalipa?

24. What did Atabalipa do in order to procure his release? To what did this treasure amount, and what was done with it? What was then done to the inca?

25. How did the Spanish chiefs then proceed? What followed?

26. What is said of the Peruvians and Mexicans? What arts did they understand? In what did the Peruvians excel? What is said of their religion?

27. What was done in 1524 by Francis I. of France? What is re-

lated of James Cartier?

28. What enterprise was performed by Sir Walter Raleigh? What took place on his return to England?

29. What Englishmen made unsuccessful attempts to settle Vir-

ginia?

30. By what right did Europeans take possession of the parts of America which they visited? How were the original inhabitants treated? Who set this example? How did he proceed?

31. What was done by the popes? What was held out as the chief reason for taking possession of America? Of what was this made the

pretext?

32. By what were the Spaniards stimulated? What is said of their

passion for gold? To what were the Indians subjected?

33. To what other iniquitous practice did the discovery and settlement of America give rise?

THE UNITED STATES.

SECTION I.

1. To what are nations inclined to lay claim? How is it with regard to the people of this country? What is said of the early history and growth of this country?

2. What is said of the first settlers, and of what were they the ad-

vocates? What circumstances have favored their growth? With whom have their political and commercial relations connected them?

3. In what did the colonization of this country originate? What colonies were peopled by these causes?

4. What were their early condition and sufferings? What was the

ultimate issue?

5. When did the crown of England grant the charter under which the first offectual English settlements were made in North America? What two companies were constituted? What territories were assigned to them?

6. When and by whom was the first effectual attempt to form a settlement? Where was it begun? How was the government admin-

istered?

7. Who was the first president? Who was chosen the second year? What is related of Smith?

8. In what contests were the colonies involved? What provoca-

tions had the Indians before received?

9. What happened to captain Smith? Before what chief was he carried?

10. What measures were taken respecting him? By whose influence was he delivered?

11. What service did Pocahontas, two years after, perform for the colonists? What is further related of her?

12. What diminution did the colonists suffer in a few months? What

did their number amount to at the end of the year?

13. To what sufferings were the colonists afterwards subjected?

14. What was the effect of this famine? What course did those who

survived it take? What induced them to remain?

15. What was the number of colonists at the end of twelve years? What addition was made in 1619? What is said of the planters? What method was adopted for supplying them with wives? What price was paid for a wife? What was the commencement of slavery?

16. What plot was concerted against the colonists in 1622? How many of them were put to death? What calamities followed the massacre? What number of inhabitants did the colony contain in

1624?

17. By what other circumstances did the colony suffer? What is said of Sir William Berkeley and his administration? To what did the restrictions on the trade of the colony give rise? What was the consequence?

18. What was the population in 1660? What was the increase in the 28 succeeding years? With what views did the first adventurers come? To what did they turn their attention in 1616? What use

was made of tobacco?

19. By whom and when was Hudson's river discovered? When and where were the first permanent settlements made by the Dutch? What were the country and the settlement on Manhattan island named?

20. Who were the three successive Dutch governors? To what did

the extension of the English settlements give rise?

21. To whom did Charles II. of England grant the country? What

afterwards took place?

22. Where did the Plymouth Company commence an unsuccessful settlement? By whom was the name of the country changed? To whom was a patent granted by king James? Between what degrees of latitude did the country granted lie?

23. When and by whom was the first permanent settlement begun in New England? Why were they called Puritans? Of whose con-

gregation did they form a part?

24. To what country had they before fled? Why did they come to America? What is said of the principle of toleration at this period?

25. To what river did they propose to sail? What was the first land that they discovered? When did they land at Plymouth?

26. To what sufferings were they subjected?

27. What kind of government did they institute? Who were the first two governors? What articles of food did they raise? How was their property for several years held?

28. What method did they adopt to protect themselves against the Indians? What is related of Samoset? What of Massasoit? How

long was the treaty made with him observed?

29. When and by whom was the colony of Massachusetts Bay begun?

By whom were Boston and other places near it first settled?

30. What is mentioned respecting the first settlements in New Hamp-How long did they continue annexed to Massachusetts?

31. When and where was the colony of Connecticut commenced?

The colony of New Haven? When were these united?

32. When, where, and by whom was the settlement of Rhode Island

commenced?

33. What is said of the attention of the colonists to religion and learning? How long after the first settlement of Massachusetts Bay was it before Harvard College was founded?

34. For what virtues were the colonists distinguished?

35. On what subjects were their views narrow? What is related of their principles and habits?

30. In what way did the colonists get possession of the land? How

- had the Indians been treated by Europeans?

 37. What is related of captain Standish and of Mr. Robinson? What colonies suffered little from the Indians for many years? What is re-lated respecting the colony of Connecticut? What was the issue of this contest?
- 38. What measure did the four colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, adopt to promote their security and welfare? How many delegates were elected by each? What is said of this union?

39. What was the most destructive Indian war in which the colonies

were ever engaged? What is said of Philip?

40. What did the Indians determine to do? What measure was adopted?

41. What was the immediate cause of war? What next took place?

42. How were hostilities conducted? What is the greatest battle called? Where was it fought? Who commanded the colonists? What was the loss on each side?

43. What we the condition of the Indians after this defeat? What happened to Philip? What is said of his death? In what wars were

the colonists afterwards annoyed by the Indians?

44. To what was the English population of these colonies at this time computed to amount? What losses were sustained? How many buildings and towns were destroyed?

45. Who was the founder of Maryland? Where did he first project a settlement? From whom was the country named? By whom was

Lord Baltimore succeeded?

46. Who was appointed the first governor? When and where aid he begin a settlement? What measures were pursued?

47. To whom was the country of Pennsylvania granted? Why was it granted to Penn? When and with whom did he arrive?

48. What did he make the basis of his institutions? How did he

manage in his intercourse with the Indians?

49. How long were the treaties preserved inviolate?

50. What is said of the prosperity of this colony? What inducements were held out to settlers?

51. What were the first civil communities in which the free tolera tion of religion was recognised?

SECTION II.

1. What sovereigns had hitherto occupied the throne of England since the commencement of the colonies? What was the effect of their principles? With what were the colonies alarmed?

2. What was done by Edward Randolph in order to destroy the

liberties of New England?

3. Who was appointed by James II. governor of New England? What measure did Sir Edmund Andros adopt? What was done with the charters? How did Sir Edmund then proceed?

4. What took place in England at this time? How was the news of the Revolution of 1688 received in this country? What measures

were adopted by the colonies?

5. What was done with regard to the colonies of Massachusetts

Bay and Plymouth?

6. How were the magistrates under the old charter elected? What change was made by the new charter? Who was appointed the first governor?

7. To what evils did the Revolution in England subject the colonice? How long did the war during the reign of William last? How

ong did that during the reign of Anne continue?
8. How much of the time, for 25 years preceding the peace of Jtrecht, had the country been exempted from war? What number of the inhabitants were in actual service? What was the condition of the rest? What was the state of the country?

9. How many young men, belonging to New England and New

York, are supposed to have been lost in the public service?

10. When did another war break out between Great Britain and France? By what was this war rendered memorable in America? What is said of Louisburg?

11. How many troops had general Pepperell? By whom was he joined? What was the issue?

12. What effect did the news of this achievement of the colonies, have on the government of France? What armament was sent by the French to America? What was the object of it?

13. What disasters happened to this fleet?

14. What became of the ships that remained? What was done with Louisburg at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle?

15. Who claimed the country watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries? What measures did the French take with regard to it, in the succeeding period of peace?

16. What grant was obtained by the Ohio Company? What course

did the French take with respect to the traders?

17. What measures were adopted by the Company and by the colony of Virginia? Who was sent to the French commandant?

18. What course was taken by the British government? What war-

like preparations were made?

19. On what expedition was general Braddock sent? What did his force amount to? What is said of Braddock and his fate? What loss was sustained? What is related of Washington?

20. By whom and where was general Johnson met in his expedition against Crown Point? What was the issue? What is said of the

expedition against Niagara and Fort Frontinac?

21. How long was the war carried on before a formal declaration was made? Who succeeded Dieskau? Who had the chief command of the English troops? What is said of the commanders, and of the ampaign? By whose means was a favorable change effected?

ampaign? By whose means was a favorable change effected?

22. What measure was pursued by Mr. Pitt? What number of men was brought into the service? What three expeditions were resolv-

ed on?

23. What forces and what commanders were sent against Louisburg? What was the issue?

24. What was the result of the attack on Ticonderoga by Abercrombie? What was done by colonel Bradstreet and general Forbes?

25. To whom was the chief command given after the disaster at Ti-conderoga? What was the object of the campaign of 1759? What three divisions were now made of the British army?

26. What was the success of the expeditions against Ticonderoga,

Crown Point, and Niagara?

27. To whom was the expedicion against Quebec intrusted? What is said of this place? What effect had the difficulties of the enterprise on the English general? With what force did he approach the city?

28. What enterprise did he accomplish during the night? What was

the issue of the battle that followed?

29. What is related of Wolfe on his viewing the engagement, after

he had received a fatal wound? What is said of Montcalm?

30. By what was this battle followed? What was done by the peace of Paris in 1763? How did the success of this war affect the colonies?

SECTION III.

1. What is said of the colonists? Why did emigrants leave England? How did they regard the parent country?

2. What was their condition at the peace of 1763?

3. What troubles assailed them after the conquest of Canada had freed them from the hostilities of the French and Indians?

4. What had been the effect of the war which Great Britain had carried on in defence of her American possessions? What was the pretext for taxing the colonies?

5. What was maintained respecting this matter by the colonies

What did they maintain was a right of British subjects?

6. What measures were adopted by parliament in 1764? How were these proceedings regarded by the colonies?

7. What act was passed the next year? On what did the Stamp Act lay a duty? What was done by the assembly of Virginia? What by Massachusetts?

8. What took place in Boston when the news of the Stamp Act arrived? What in New York? What was done by the merchants?

9. When and where did a colonial congress meet? What measure did this congress adopt? What was done by the merchants? What was the issue respecting the Stamp Act? What was done by parliament after a change in the British cabinet?

10. What act was passed by parliament in 1767? What was done to render the act effectual? What was another arbitrary measure of

parliament?

11. What were now the feelings of the Americans? What affray took place on the 5th of March? How was the funeral of the deceas-What was the result of the trial of captain Preston ed conducted? and his soldiers?

12. Who was appointed prime minister of England in 1770? What did the British ministry intend to do by retaining the duty of three pence on tea? What were the Americans determined to do? is said of the years 1771 and 1772? What did the inhabitants of New York do with the tea ships? What was done at Boston?

13. What place was considered the chief seat of rebellion?

was the act called the Boston Port Bill? What was its effect? 14. With what authority did general Gage arrive in Boston?

15. What measures were adopted in Massachusetts to prepare for

16. What was done by the general court of Massachusetts?17. When and where did the Continental Congress meet? Of whom was this congress composed? What measures did they adopt?

18. What is said of the power of Great Britain? What was the condition of the Colonies? By what were their operations especially embarrassed? How was their resolution to engage in the contest regarded in England?

19 What was done when the proceedings of the congress were laid before parliament? To what number was the British army increased?

20. What was the purport of lord North's conciliatory proposition?

What was the design of it? How was it received?

21. For what object did general Gage send a party of troops to Salem? Who were sent to seize the military stores at Concord? What account is given of the affair at Lexington?

22. What was done by the British troops after having dispersed the militia at Lexington? What took place on their return?

23. What was now done by the Americans? What two important posts were secured?

24. What was done by the provincial congress of Massachusetts?

25. When and where did the second continental congress meet? What did they recommend?

26. What generals arrived with British troops? What measure was

now adopted? Who were excepted from the offer of pardon?

27. For what purpose was colonel Prescott ordered to throw up a breastwork on Bunker Hill? How far had the work proceeded before it was discovered?

28. With what force did general Howe make an attack on the orks? What is said of the defence of the Americans? What losses were sustained en each side? What was done by the British while their troops were advancing?

29. What measures were now adopted by congress? Who was chosen commander in chief of the American army? What is said of

Washington? Where did he establish his head-quarters?

30. Who were sent on an expedition to Canada? On whom did the chief command devolve?

31. What was accomplished by Arnold? What was the issue of

the attack on Quebec?

32. What took place in Virginia during these operations in the north? What was done by lord Dunmore?

33. From what other states were the royal governors expelled? What were the adherents of Great Britain called? What is said of them? By whom was general Gage succeeded?

34. What is said of the American army investing Boston? did Washington resolve to do in the latter part of the winter?

measures were adopted?

35. What prevented Howe from attacking the works? What took

36. What was the effect produced in England by the news of the battle of Bunker Hill? What measures did the ministry adopt? To

what did the force destined to America amount?

37. What had hitherto been the object of the controversy? What did the colonies now begin to think of doing? What publication contributed to bring about a great change in the public mind? By whom was the motion in congress made for declaring the colonies free and independent? Of whom did the committee for preparing the Declaration consist? How and when was the vote carried?

38. How does the Declaration conclude?

SECTION IV.

1. What was the issue of the attack made by the British under Sir

Peter Parker on Sullivan's Island?

2. Whither did Sir William Howe sail on evacuating Boston? Whither did Washington soon after remove his army? What British commanders arrived near New York in June? What forces were now collected on each side?

3. What attempts were made by lord Howe and general Howe to bring about an accommodation? To what did it appear that Great Britain still held? What did Washington say to the offer of pardon?

4. Where did an engagement take place? By whom were the Americans commanded? What were the issue and the losses? How was the retreat of the Americans effected?

5. What was Washington's next movement? What fort was reduced by Howe? Of what were the British now possessed?

6. What retreat did Washington now make? What was now done

by the British troops?

7. What was now the aspect of American affairs, and the state of the army? What other misfortunes had occurred? How large an army had Washington? What else took place unfavorable to the American cause?

8. What account is given of Washington's attack on Trenton? What was his next exploit? What was the effect of these measures?

9. What measures did congress adopt at this period?
10. What was done by general Howe in March and April of 1777?
11. Of what did the American army now consist? What measure was adopted by Howe? What movement was made by Washington? What battle followed? What were the losses?

12. What was done by Howe after this battle? What account is 34

given of the battle of Germantown? What was then done by the British army?

13. Who invaded the States through Canada? What advantages

did general Burgoyne gain?

14. For what purpose did he send a detachment to Bennington What was the issue? What took place on the Mohawk?

15. Where did Burgoyne encamp with his forces? Who had now the command of the American army in the north? What losses were sustained in the battle of Stillwater? How was the British army soon after situated?

16. What did Burgoyne do in this exigency? What measure was

he next compelled to adopt? What number was surrendered?

17. What was the effect of the surrender of Burgoyne? Who had been sent, in 1776, to France, to solicit assistance? What was their success? What was done after the surrender of Burgoyne?

18. How were the British ministry affected by these events? What

measures were adopted? What was the issue?

19. Who succeeded general Howe as commander in chief of the British army? What did the British now determine to do? What events followed?

20. How large was the French fleet under Count d'Estaign? What plan was now concerted? What account is given of the engagement on Rhode Island? What was done by the French fleet? What town was taken by the British in December?

21. What change was made in the theatre of the war in 1779? What is said of the operations?. By what were the exertions of the

Americans enfeebled?

22. What was done by Collier and Matthews? What by Tryon? 23. What account is given of the achievement of general Wayne?
Of general Lovell? Of general Sullivan?

24. Who had now the command of the American army in the south? What was the issue of the attack. What took place at Briar Creek? made on the English in Savannah?

25. What state was the principal theatre of the war in 1780? What account is given of the siege of Charleston by Clinton? Who was

left to command the British troops in the south?

26. What measures were taken to secure the obedience of the inte-

rior country to the British? What events took place?

- 27. Who now took the command of the southern American army in place of general Lincoln? What account is given of the battle of
- 28. What French fleet and army arrived? What is said of them? 29. What treacherous plot did general Arnold form? What facts are related respecting Arnold? How was his design frustrated?

 30. What is said of major Andre? What became of Arnold?
 - 31. What is said of the operations of the war in 1781? What was

done by Arnold? 32. Who was now appointed to the southern American army?

What is related respecting the battle of the Cow-Pens?

33. What account is given of the battle near Guildford court-house? What took place at Camden? What account is given of the battle of Eutaw Springs?

34. What course did Cornwallis take after the battle of Guildford?

Where did he encamp and fortify himself?

35. What measure had been concerted by the American officers?

On whom was it finally resolved to make an attack? How was Sir Henry Clinton prevented from sending assistance to Cornwallis?

36. What course did Washington now pursue?

37. What measure was adopted by Clinton? What was done in

Connecticut? 38. What good news did Washington hear at Chester? What was

the issue of the engagement between the English and French fleats? To what did Washington's force now amount?

39. What was the effect of the attack of the Americans on the British army? When did Cornwallis propose a cessation of hostilities?

What was the number of prisoners that surrendered? 40. How was the news of this surrender received? What expres-

sions of gratitude were made by the army and by congress?
41. What is said of the subsequent military operations? What changes were made in the British cabinet and in the command of the British army? When were provisional articles of peace signed? When, where, and by whom was the definitive treaty of peace concluded?

42. What did this war cost Great Britain?

SECTION V.

1. What difficulties arose when the American army was about to be disbanded? To what expedient had congress been driven? How had the army been paid, and what was their condition?

2. Why had the officers remained quiet, and why were they now What took place with regard to that portion stationed at alarmed?

. Newburg?

3. What did Washington do at this crisis?
4. What effect had this speech upon the officers? What measures did congress adopt?

5. In what manner did Washington resign his command?

6. After the return of peace, how was the government under the Articles of Confederation found? What was the state of the paper currency?

7. In what proportion to their nominal value were the army notes

sold? Who were the sufferers by this depreciation?

8. When and where did commissioners meet to form a system of

commercial regulations? What measure did they adopt?

9. When did the delegates meet at Philadelphia? When was the constitution unanimously agreed to by them? What measure was then taken respecting it? When was it ratified by eleven of the states? By what states was it not at first adopted?

10. Who was unanimously chosen first president? What is said

of his journey to New York?

11. When was he inaugurated? What is said of the ceremony?

12. How was the nation affected by this event? What is said of his qualifications? Who was elected vice-president? Who were the other principal officers?

13. What beneficial effects were soon felt?

14. Over whom did the Indians north of the Ohio obtain victories in 1790 and 1791? Who routed them, and negotiated a treaty at Green-

15. In what other difficulties were the United States now involved?

What were the feelings of a large portion of the community? was the policy of Washington's administration?

16. What did Washington do near the end of the second term of his administration? By whom was he succeeded?

17. What course was pursued by the French revolutionary government? How did the American government act? What soon after took place?

18. What particulars are mentioned respecting Washington's death? What effect was produced by the news? How was his death noticed

throughout the country?

19. What parties arose at the time of the adoption of the federal constitution? How were they afterwards generally designated? How did these parties differ? What is said of the treaty negotiates by Mr. Jay?

20. What measures of Mr. Adams's administration excited most dis-

satisfaction? What change took place in 1801?

SECTION VI.

1. What was the state of the country during the first term of Mr. Jefferson's official career? How had America managed with respect

to the two belligerent powers of Europe?

2. What measure did the British government adopt in 1806? What did the French Berlin Decree declare? What was the effect of the British Orders in Council? What was the import of Bonaparte's Milan Decree?

3. What measure was recommended by Mr. Jefferson, and adopted by congress? What was substituted in its stead?

4. What was the condition of the trade of the United States? 5. What species of injury did the United States suffer exclusively

from Britain? What is said on this subject?

6. What complaint did the British make? What is said of this

practice? 7. To what vessels had the custom of searching for British seamen been confined? What account is given of the attack on the American

frigate the Chesapeake?

8. How was this outrage regarded? What measures were adopted? 9. By whom was Mr. Jefferson succeeded? What took place at the commencement of Mr. Madison's administration? What is related of Mr. Jackson? Between what vessels of war did a rencounter take

10. Under what circumstances did congress meet in May, 1812?

- What did Mr. Madison state as the principal grounds of war?

 11. How was the bill passed? What took place five days after the declaration?
- 12. On what ground did the minority oppose the war? How was it with the people

13. Under what circumstances was the war commenced?

14. What is related respecting general Hull's invasion of Canada? What is said of general Van Rensselaer's attempt?

15. What is said of the success of the Americans on the ocean?

What naval victories were gained?

16. By whom was general Winchester defeated? What became of about 500 prisoners?

17 What is related of general Pike? What of colonel Dudley

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